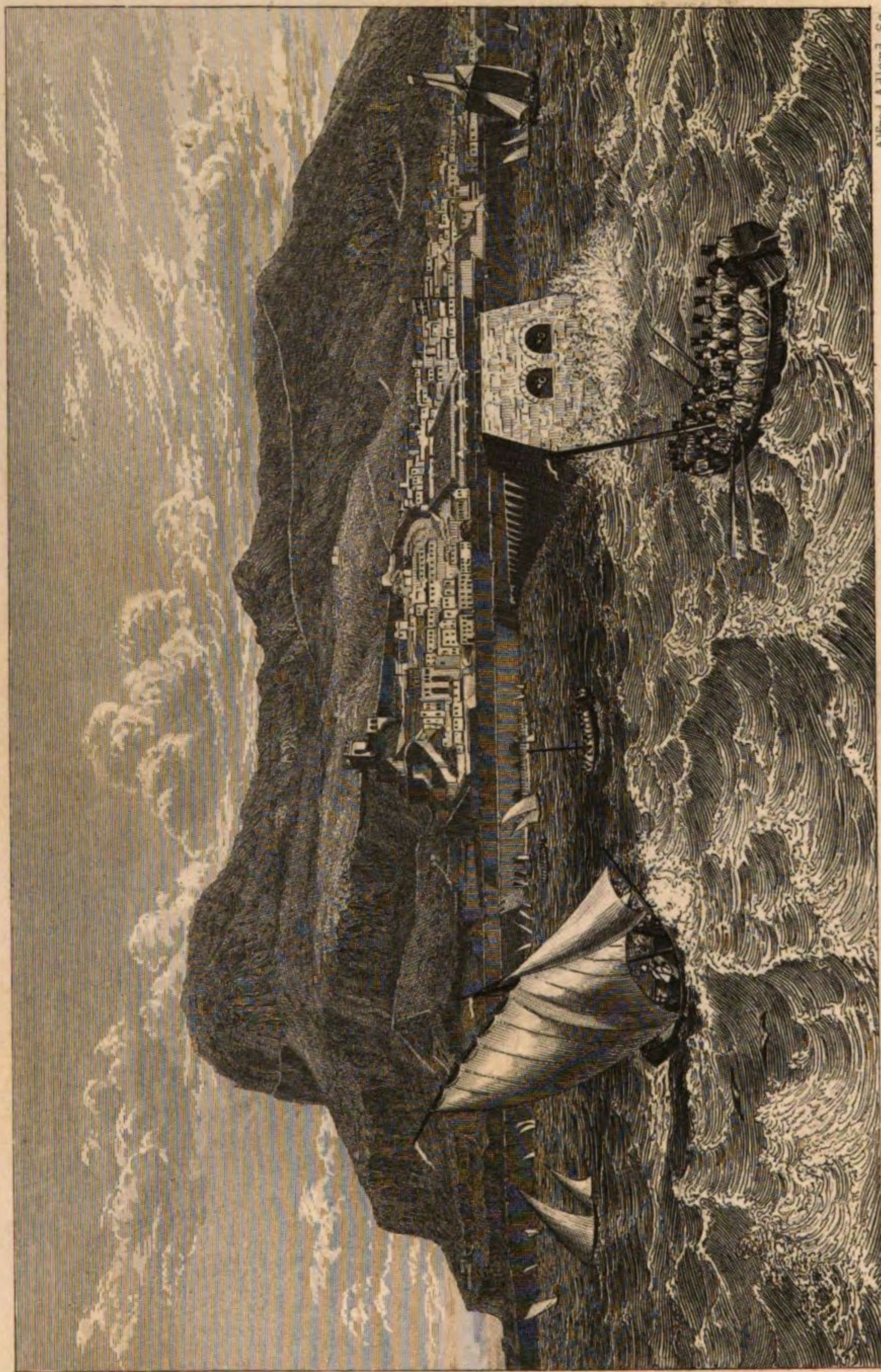


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Alfred Adlard Sc.

GIBRALTAR.

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IONIAN ISLANDS.

BY
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SEAL OF GIBRALTAR.

LONDON:
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HISTORY

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BRITISH POSSESSIONS

IN THE

MEDITERRANEAN

BY

GENERAL SIR J. GORDON

OF THE ARMY

AND

J. MONTAGUE MARTIN, F.R.S.



LONDON

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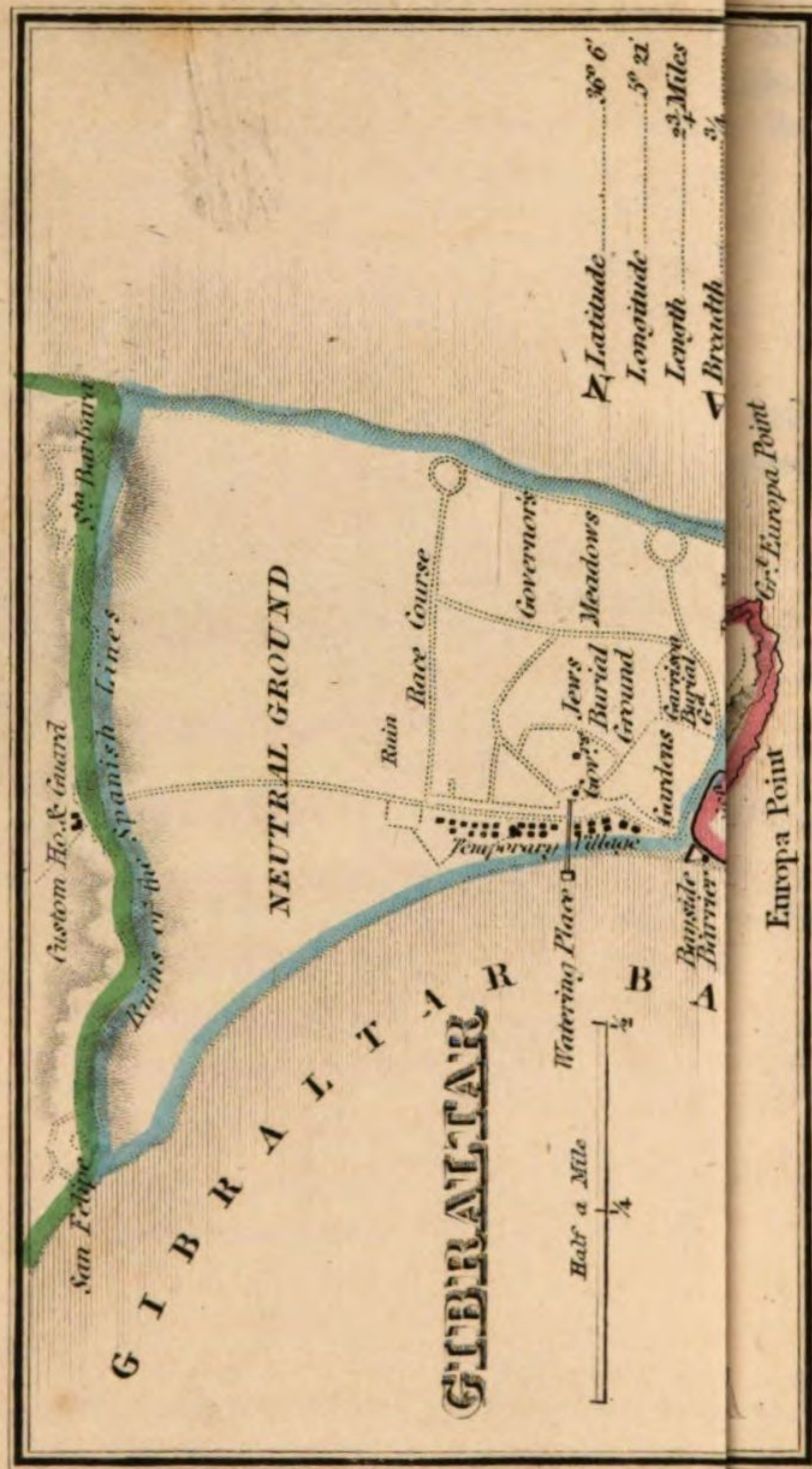
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EUROPE.

BOOK I.

GIBRALTAR.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—CONQUEST BY ENGLAND AND SIEGES —
DUKE OF KENT'S GOVERNORSHIP.

GIBRALTAR promontory or peninsula, three miles long, and seven in circumference, situate in $36^{\circ} 9'$ of north latitude, and $5^{\circ} 21'$ of east longitude—forming the southern part of the continent of Europe¹, and the key to the Mediterranean, is not the least remarkable possession of the British crown, whether it be regarded in reference to its important maritime position, or to its being the theatre of an heroism which no English patriot can contemplate without feelings of the warmest admiration,—while hoping

¹ Europa point, the extremity of Gibraltar, is sometimes erroneously called the *most* southern part of Europe; but Cabrita is two, and Tarifa five miles further to the southward.

that a fortress acquired and maintained by the valour of our ancestors for a security to the dominion of the seas may be transmitted to our posterity as an integral portion of this oceanic empire.

The earliest accounts of this singular rock are involved in fable, or clothed in the elegant fiction of mythology. The Greeks gave, it is thought, the term CALPE, Καλπη (Urna) to the mountain by reason of its advancing into the sea from the main-land, like a bucket, and Calpe together with the neighbouring Mons Abyla, on the opposite or African coast, received the appellation of " Pillars of Hercules ;" that demi-god of the heathens having been supposed to have either erected pillars somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Straits, or probably it was put forth that Calpe and Abyla owed their creation to the vast strength of the Herculean giant.

Whether the Phœnician navigators, Carthaginian merchants, or Roman conquerors ever settled on the " Rock," does not appear, and it is probable that the natural strength of the position was first noticed in the beginning of the eighth century, when the Saracens or Moors invaded and made themselves masters of Spain. The particulars of this extraordinary invasion would be out of place in a work of this nature, suffice it to say, that Tarif Ebn Zarcā, a general under the Moorish sovereign or Caliph Alwalid Ebn Abdalmalic, landed A.D. 712, with an army of 12,000 men, for the conquest of Spain, and gave orders for the erection of a strong castle on the face of the mountain, for the purpose of keeping up his communication with Africa—the remains of which at present

exist, though its completion bore the date A.D. 725. From this period Mons Calpe took the name of *Gibel Tarif* (hence Gibraltar), or Mountain of Tarif, in compliment to the victorious Saracen general.

During the Moorish occupation of the Spanish territory, Gibraltar increased in importance, though its strength could not have been very great, as it was captured from the Moors with a small detachment of troops by Ferdinand, King of Castile, in the beginning of the fourteenth century; the fortress remained in the possession of the Spaniards until A.D. 1333, when Abomelique, son to the Emperor of Fez, who had been despatched to the assistance of the Moorish king of Grenada, laid siege to Gibraltar, which after five months' attack surrendered to the Africans.

Alonzo XI., an ambitious and warlike prince, then on the throne of Castile, attempted the recapture of this important station five days after its re-occupation by the Moors; but Mahomet, King of Grenada, joining Abomelique's forces, so hemmed in the besiegers as to compel them to raise the siege. In the beginning of 1349, Alonzo again attempted the conquest of Gibraltar, but his army was forced to retire on the death of the Castilian monarch, 24th March 1350. Until 1410 A.D. the descendants of Abomelique continued in quiet possession of Gibraltar, when Jusaf, the third King of Grenada, availing himself of intestine feuds in the garrison, took possession thereof; but the Grenadian Alcaide was driven out by a revolt of the people in the ensuing year, and the Emperor of Morocco solicited by the inhabitants to take the fortress under his protection; accordingly, he sent his

brother Sayd to their relief, with 1,000 horse and 2,000 foot; the King of Grenada resolving, however, to repossess himself of Gibraltar, appeared before it in 1411, with a large fleet and army, and the Morocco troops, after suffering great hardship, were obliged to submit to the superior strength of their enemy.

In 1435, Henry De Guzman, Count de Niebla, lost his life in an attack on Gibraltar. The son of this unfortunate nobleman (John De Guzman, Duke de Medina Sidonia) was, however, more successful in 1462, having aided in the final capture of Gibraltar from the Moors, who had retained possession of the fortress for 748 years. Henry IV. of Castile and Leon was so rejoiced at the conquest, that he added Gibraltar to his royal titles¹, and gave it for arms *Gules*, a castle with a key pendant to the gate, *or*, (alluding to its being the key to the Mediterranean) which arms have been continued down to the present day.

In 1502, during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Gibraltar was annexed to the Crown of Spain, instead of being under the control of the Duke De Medina Sidonia, but its strength could not have been very great in 1540, as we find Piali Hamet, one of Barbarossa's captains, surprised and pillaged Gibraltar. During the reign, however, of Charles V., the fortifications of the town were modernized, and from additions made by Daniel Speckel, the Emperor's engineer, it was thought to be impregnable.

While under the Government of Spain, Gibraltar

¹ Gibraltar had heretofore been the chief city in the kingdom of Abomelique.

was a place upon which divers kings of Spain had bestowed special privileges, on account of its presenting the first point of attack from the Moors of Barbary. Among other privileges by Ferdinand IV. and Alonzo XI., it was declared to be a place of refuge for all malefactors, being a safeguard and protection granted them not only while there, but a residence of a year conferred the same privilege elsewhere. This protection, however, did not extend to treason, to taking a man's wife from him, or to breaking a treaty made by the King; nor did the protection extend to those committing the above mentioned crimes within the territory.

Little further is known of Gibraltar until the year 1704, when Sir George Rooke, who had been sent into the Mediterranean with a large fleet to assist Charles Archduke of Austria in recovering the crown of Spain, finding nothing of importance to be done, called a council of war on the 17th July 1704, near Tetuan, where, after several schemes were proposed (such as a second attack on Cadiz) and rejected, it was resolved to attempt the conquest of Gibraltar. On the 21st July, the fleet arrived in the bay; 1,800 English and Dutch were landed on the isthmus, under the command of the Prince of Hesse D'Armstadt; the Governor was summoned to surrender, and on his refusal, a cannonade was opened on the town by the ships, under the orders of Admirals Byng and Vanderdussen. In five or six hours the enemy were driven from their guns, especially from the New Molehead, which the admiral wishing to possess himself of, ordered Captain Whitaker, with

the armed boats, ashore; Captains Hicks and Jumper, however, first pushed ashore in their pinnaces, upon which the Spaniards blew up the fortifications, killing two lieutenants and forty men, and wounding sixty. Notwithstanding this slaughter, the British kept possession of their ground, and being now joined by Captain Whitaker, advanced and took possession of a small bastion, half way between the mole and the town. The Governor (the Marquis de Saluces) being again summoned, thought it prudent to capitulate, for although the works were strong, mounting 100 pieces of canon, well appointed with ammunition and stores, yet the garrison consisted of but 150 men, exclusive of the inhabitants; hostages were therefore exchanged, and on the 24th July, 1704, the Prince of Hesse took possession of the gates of Gibraltar, after a loss on the side of the British,—*killed*, two lieutenants, one master, and fifty-seven sailors; and *wounded*, one captain, seven lieutenants, one boat-swain, and 207 sailors.

Gibraltar has ever since continued in the hands of the English; not, however, without frequent attempts of their enemies to wrest it from them. The Courts of Madrid and Paris resolved on an immediate attempt at its recapture, and the Marquis de Villadarias, a Grandee of Spain, aided by six battalions of French troops, opened his trenches against the fortress on the 11th of October, 1704, and soon made many breaches in the outworks. Sir John Leake, who had been left at Lisbon with a fleet for the succour of the garrison in case of need, threw into Gibraltar six months' provisions and ammunition, detaching on

shore at the same time a body of 500 sailors, to assist in repairing the breaches caused by the enemy's fire. The resolution of the besiegers amounted to desperation ; though the British admiral was before the town, a scheme was formed for surprising the garrison, and, on the 31st of October, 500 volunteers took the sacrament, and departed with a determination never to return until they had retaken Gibraltar.

A goatherd conducted this forlorn hope to the side of the rock near Cave Guard, and on the first night they lodged themselves unperceived in St. Michael's Cave ; on the succeeding evening they scaled Charles V.'s wall, surprised and massacred the guard at Middle Hill, and got up several hundred of the party from below who had been ordered to sustain them. A strong detachment of British grenadiers marched immediately from the town, and attacked the invaders with such a terrific onslaught, that 150 of these gallant Spaniards were killed on the rocks or driven over the precipices, and a colonel, with thirty officers, together with the remainder of the party, taken prisoners ; the French, who were to have supported them from below, having left them to their fate.

The combined forces continued the siege with great vigour, and Sir John Leake threw 2000 additional men, with a proportionate quantity of ammunition and provisions, into the garrison ; the Spanish general was also reinforced with a considerable body of infantry, and on the 11th and 12th of January, 1705, made two attacks with an endeavour to carry the fortress, by storming a breach which had been made in a round tower ; they were, however, after some

difficulty, repulsed, with a considerable loss in killed and wounded.

With the new year the French and Spaniards renewed their preparations for attack; and the English ministry, alive to the importance of Gibraltar, ordered out reinforcements under Sir Thomas Dilkes and Sir John Hardy, to join Admiral Sir John Leake at Lisbon. The fleet, consisting of twenty-eight English, four Dutch, and eight Portuguese men-of-war, having on board two battalions, being now refitted, sailed on the 6th March, captured three French ships of the line, drove ashore and burnt the admiral's and another ship, and so strengthened the garrison, that Marshal Tesse, a Frenchman, who had succeeded the Spanish Marquis, withdrew his troops from the trenches, and contented himself with forming a blockade to prevent the English ravaging the country.

The siege was now considered at an end; and during its continuance the combined forces of France and Spain lost by casualties and sickness at least 10,000 men; the loss of the British being not more than 400. By a separate treaty concluded with Spain, on the 13th July, 1713, the following terms were agreed on:—

“The Catholic King does hereby, for himself, his heirs and successors, yield to the crown of Great Britain the full and entire property of the town and castle of Gibraltar, together with the port, fortification, and forts thereunto belonging; and he gives up the said property to be held and enjoyed absolutely with all manner of right for ever, without any exception or impediment whatsoever; but that abuses and frauds may be avoided by importing any kind of goods, the Catholic King

wills, and means it to be understood, that the above named property be yielded to Great Britain without any territorial jurisdiction, and without any open communications by land with the country round about : yet whereas the communication by sea with the coast of Spain may not at all times be safe or open, and thereby it may happen that the garrison and other inhabitants of Gibraltar may be brought to great straits ; and as it is the intention of the Catholic King only that fraudulent importation of goods should, as is above said, be hindered by any inland communication, it is therefore provided, that in such cases it may be lawful to purchase for ready money in the neighbouring territories of Spain, provisions and other things necessary for the use of the garrison and inhabitants, and the ships lying in the harbour ; and her Britannic Majesty, at the request of the Catholic King, does consent and agree that no leave shall be given, under any pretence, either for Jews or Moors to reside or have any dwellings in the said town of Gibraltar ; and that no refuge shall be allowed to any Moorish ships of war in the harbour of the town, whereby the communication between Spain and Ceuta may be obstructed, or the coasts of Spain be infested by the incursions of the Moors : her Majesty, the Queen of Great Britain, does further promise, that the free exercise of their religion shall be indulged to the Roman Catholic inhabitants of the town ; and in case it shall seem meet to the Crown of Great Britain to alienate therefrom the property of the said town of Gibraltar, that the preference of having the same shall always be given to the Crown of Spain."

The Spaniards did not abandon their hopes. In 1720, the Marquis de Leda collected a formidable force, under pretence of relieving Ceuta, a Spanish fortress in Barbary, but in reality with an intention of surprising Gibraltar, then in a weak and almost defenceless state. The British ministry had timely notice of the enemy's intention ; Colonel Kane, Governor of Minorca, was ordered immediately to embark with part of his garrison (500 men) for Gibralt-

tar, and this assistance, together with the spirited conduct of the British Commodore, induced the Marquis of Leda to sail for Ceuta. Gibraltar remained unmolested until 1727, when the Count De Las Torres, commanding the Spanish forces, collected 20,000 men, and advanced towards the garrison. From February to June, the Spaniards prosecuted the siege with great vigour and bravery, and the garrison being reinforced from England and the sea-way open, supplies were abundantly poured into Gibraltar, when, on the 12th June, an armistice took place on the news of preliminaries being signed for a general peace reaching the belligerents. During the siege the garrison lost about 300 killed and wounded, and 70 cannon and 30 mortars burst: the loss of the Spaniards was estimated at 3000 men. On the close of the contest the Spaniards erected lines and forts across the isthmus, about a mile from the garrison, effectually preventing any communication with the country, and by means of the western fort, called St. Philip's, commanded the best anchorage on the side of the bay next the garrison.

What the Spaniards could not obtain by force of arms, they endeavoured to gain by negociation. The accession of Philip V. of Spain to the Quadruple Alliance of 1718, being an object which the Courts of Great Britain and France had much at heart, the Regent of France undertook, with the view of propitiating Philip, to prevail upon George I. to listen to a proposition for restoring Gibraltar to Spain; a proposition which King George did not reject, but which he declined to entertain without the concur-

rence of his Parliament. Upon this point, private assurances of a more explicit nature were made ; and there is reason for believing that the Regent of France pledged his word to Philip that Gibraltar should be restored to him.

When Philip, however, had finally acceded to the Quadruple Alliance, he insisted in vain that he had only done so upon condition that Gibraltar should be restored to him : he had formerly declared to the Regent that such was the consideration (*sine quâ non*) upon which he had entered into the views of the allies. Finding that his remonstrances were not listened to, he refused to fulfil various obligations which he had contracted towards Great Britain. He declined especially to issue his license for authorizing the trade of the South Sea Company with South America.

For the purpose of overcoming these difficulties, King George addressed a letter to Philip on the 21st of June, 1721, in which it was stated :

“ Puisque par la confiance que Votre Majesté me temoigne je puis regarder les traités qui ont été en question entre nous comme rétablis et qu’en conformité les pièces nécessaires au commerce de mes sujets auront été extradées, je ne balance plus à assurer Votre Majesté de ma promptitude à la satisfaire par rapport à sa demande touchant la restitution de Gibraltar, lui promettant de me servir des premières occasions pour régler cet article, du consentement de mon Parlement.”

That letter of King George led to a series of earnest representations from Philip, which lasted until the year 1725, when the British Minister at Madrid was cautioned “ not to go on any further in proposals or discourse of equivalents or expedients for the

delivery of Gibraltar. No minister would have the boldness to advise such a kind of equivalent. The King had always told His Catholic Majesty that he could do nothing as to Gibraltar, without the concurrence of Parliament. It would not be alienated without the consent of Parliament. The behaviour of the Spanish Court has been such that it is impossible they themselves can think His Majesty any longer under the least obligation of laying this demand before Parliament." The fact is, that George I. would have given up Gibraltar to the Spaniards, but for the strong expression of public feeling in opposition to the measure.

Nothing deserving of note occurred for several years, excepting in 1760,—a projected mutiny of two British regiments, who being a long time stationed on the rock, and seeing little prospect of being relieved, formed a plot to surprise and massacre the officers; the conspirators, however, to the number of 730, had their schemes frustrated by means of a quarrel in a wine-house: one man was executed, ten condemned, and tranquillity restored.

When hostilities commenced in 1762, the Spaniards made no effort for the conquest of Gibraltar, but the contest between Great Britain and her North American Colonies, in 1777, and the subsequent hostilities between England and France, seemed to afford a favourable opportunity to Spain, who, on the 16th June, 1779, presented a hostile manifesto to the Court of London, espousing the part of France.

The main object of the Court of Madrid was evidently the capture of Gibraltar; as Spain, in com-

mon with the other continental powers, thought the loss to England of her North American Colonies would strike such a blow at her maritime strength as would completely overwhelm her—forgetting that England still possessed the Canadas and the West Indies, and that her Eastern possessions were rapidly augmenting. On the 21st June, 1779, the communication between Spain and Gibraltar was closed by orders from Madrid, and even before any reply was given by the British ministry to proposals for a pacification, (which, however, it was well known would be rejected,) overtures had been privately made to the Emperor of Morocco to farm his ports of Tetuan, Tangier, and Laroche, in order to cut off Gibraltar from its domestic market; in fact, the principal source of its supplies.

The strength of the garrison, when this memorable siege commenced, was as follows¹: General G. A. Elliott, Governor; Lieutenant-General R. Boyd, Lieutenant-Governor; Major-General De La Motte, commanding the Hanoverian brigade.

	Officers.	Staff.	Sergeants.	Drum- mers.	Rank and File.
Artillery.....	25	0	17	15	428
12th Regiment	26	3	29	22	506
39th Ditto.....	25	4	29	22	506
56th Ditto.....	23	4	30	22	508
58th Ditto.....	25	3	29	22	526
72d Ditto, or R. M. V.	29	4	47	22	944
Hanoverians:					
Hardenbergs	16	13	42	14	367
Reden's.....	15	12	42	14	361
De La Motte's.....	17	16	42	14	367
Engineers, &c.....	8	0	6	2	106
Total.....	209	59	313	169	4632
Making an army of 5382 men.					

¹ It is due here to Colonel Drinkwater to observe, that for

To particularize the details of the siege would be beyond my limits and object, the leading features will therefore be sufficient. The Spaniards, after cutting off the communication between the fortress and the mainland, blockaded the port with a superior naval force; not, however, with such strictness as to prevent several foreign flags, laden with provisions, from evading the vigilance of the enemy's cruisers. During the remainder of the year, viz. from June to December, 1779, nothing further was done by the Spaniards than strengthening their lines, and pushing forward with unceasing vigilance the extensive works with which they were preparing to bombard the fortress, which seemed to be quite neglected by England; indeed, famine began to erect its gaunt and horrid form: one woman died of want, many were so enfeebled that it was not without great care they recovered, and thistles, dandelions, wild leeks, &c. were for some time the daily nourishment of numbers.

During this extreme scarcity of provisions, a singular mode of hatching chickens was practised by the Hanoverians. The eggs were placed with some cotton, wool, or other warm substance, in a tin case of such construction as to be heated either by a lamp

the details of this siege, as also for the courteous loan of several works on Gibraltar, I am indebted to that highly respected officer. No person can peruse Colonel D.'s narrative of events, in which he bore an honoured part, without equally admiring the modesty and fidelity of the historian. The very minutiae of detail in which the "*History of the late Siege*" abounds renders it not only a portion of the famous rock itself, but also affords an imperishable monument of British endurance and bravery.

or hot water ; and, by a proper attention to the temperature of heat, the eggs were commonly hatched in the usual time of a hen's sitting. A *capon* was then taught to rear them : the feathers were plucked from his breast and belly ; he was then scourged with a bunch of nettles, and placed upon the young hatch, whose downy warmth afforded such comfort to the bare and smarting parts, that he from that period reared them up with equal care and tenderness as though they had been his own offspring.

On the 12th January, 1780, the Spaniards fired ten shots at the fortress from Fort St. Philip, several of which came into the town, and wounded the first person struck during the siege, which singular enough happened to be a woman. On the 17th January, Admiral Sir George Brydges Rodney arrived from England, with a fleet of twenty-one sail of the line, and a large convoy of merchantmen, for the relief of the garrison ; a circumstance which of course diffused general joy, which was not a little increased from the fact of a complete victory having been gained by the British over the Spanish Admiral, whose vessel, together with three others of his squadron, were taken, one driven ashore, another blown up during the engagement, and the rest dispersed.

It was in this fleet that our present gracious Sovereign (then Prince William Henry) visited Gibraltar, and in contributing towards its relief, made his first appearance as a defender of that throne, which it has pleased Providence to permit his Majesty to adorn. His Royal Highness served as a midshipman under Admiral Digby, in the Prince George, and on one occasion in

particular a circumstance occurred which Englishmen may be proud of. The Spanish Admiral, Don Juan Langara, (then a prisoner aboard the British fleet,) visiting Admiral Digby one morning, was of course introduced to his Royal Highness. During the conference between the Admirals, Prince William Henry retired, and when it was intimated that Don Juan wished to retire, his Royal Highness appeared as the midshipman on duty, and respectfully informed the Admiral that the boat was manned. The Spaniard could not contemplate the son of England's Monarch acting as a petty officer unmoved, and turning to Admiral Digby and his suite, he exclaimed, "*Well does Great Britain merit the empire of the sea, when the humblest stations in her navy are occupied by princes of the blood !*"

Sir George Rodney having recruited the garrison with supplies, and added to its strength the second battalion of the 73rd regiment (1000 strong), at the same time removing all useless mouths, left Gibraltar to make its own defence. Nothing of moment occurred from January to June, excepting that the scurvy broke out in the garrison, disabling many hands, and the enemy attempted to destroy the few ships we had in the New Mole, by means of fire-ships, which attempt was however happily frustrated by the coolness and intrepidity of our seamen, who grappled with the floating masses of fire, and towed them clear of the anchorage under the walls, where, when broken up, they proved valuable to the besieged. The enemy continued to the close of the year 1780, extending the different branches of their

approaches, and maintaining a rigorous blockade rather than using any active annoyances ; and through the neglect, in England, of the ministry, in refusing a trifling aid to the Emperor of Morocco, the Spaniards succeeded in getting temporary possession of the Barbary ports, and by the removal of our consul (Mr. Logie) entirely cut off the garrison from those supplies which had heretofore proved of the utmost value.

In April, 1781, the distress of the garrison became very great, and starvation again appeared, a point which it was the grand object of the Spaniards to attain : but on the 12th, our brave and patient countrymen were gladdened with the sight of 100 merchant vessels entering their bay, under convoy of Admiral Darby, and several line-of-battle ships. The enemy, on perceiving this relief to the besieged, made instant preparations for bombarding the fortress, and as the van of the convoy came to an anchor off the New Mole and Rosia Bay, the Spaniards opened a tremendous cannonade upon Gibraltar from 114 pieces of artillery, including 50 thirteen-inch mortars. The bombardment was continued on the 13th, several soldiers were killed and wounded in their quarters, and Ensign Martin wounded with splinters of stones. On the 14th, the effects of the continued bombardment were felt in the destruction of some wine-houses, which was the signal for a license to the soldiery, who were betrayed into most lamentable irregularities ; some died of immediate intoxication, and several were with difficulty recovered by oils and tobacco-water ; a great quantity of liquor and goods were wantonly destroyed

in revenge for the high prices which the Jews and other hucksters had been charging for provisions, which they had privately concealed in abundance; and among other instances of caprice and extravagance, there was one of roasting a pig at a fire made entirely of *cinnamon*: the timely adoption, however, of rigorous measures put an end to such scenes.

On the 15th April, the bombardment was continued with great vivacity. Not content with discharging their ordnance regularly, the Spaniards saluted the fortress almost every instant with a volley of eight or ten cannon, besides mortars, and their destructive gun-boats kept up a smart attack on our shipping. Our batteries remained silent, and the guns at Willis's (against which the attacks of the enemy were principally directed) were drawn behind the merlons to secure them against the effect of the enemy's shot. In a few days Gibraltar began to feel the effects of so heavy a bombardment, and every possible effort was made to repair the demolition caused by so destructive a cannonade.

So brisk was the Spanish fire on the 21st April, that forty-two rounds were numbered in two minutes; the only cessation was at mid-day, when the troops retired to enjoy the siesta, so common and so useful in a warm climate. In the beginning of May, the enemy's fire seldom exceeded 1000 rounds in the twenty-four hours, and their batteries were much shaken by the firing, but the mortar and gun-boats, owing to our silence, advanced so near as to throw several shells into the garrison with disastrous effects. Towards the close of the month the bombardment was

considerably abated, and in the beginning of June decreased to about 500 rounds in the twenty-four hours.

Although the bombardment in June scarcely exceeded 450 rounds in the twenty-four hours, yet their shot, though fired at so great a distance, frequently pierced seven solid feet of sand-bag work, and the batteries at Willis's were again greatly damaged. Throughout July the Spanish fire slackened, but much injury was done by their gun-boats. In August the bombardment diminished to three shells in the twenty-four hours, but the blockade was rigorously revived, and their advances pushed forward with casks covered by fascines and sand in front.

In September, the firing from the garrison was increased, exceeding sometimes 700 rounds in the twenty-four hours, to which the enemy frequently returned 800 or upwards, while our men became so accustomed to the fire as to incautiously expose themselves, scarcely deigning even to notice an unexploded shell at their feet: the result of this callousness to danger was the loss of several gallant men. The fire slackened during October, excepting on the 20th, when a brisk attack was kept up on a new battery erected about 1200 yards from the grand battery. Our artillery fired 1596 shot, 530 shells, ten carcasses, and two light balls; and the enemy returned 1012 shot, and 302 shells. The loss on the British side was not inconsiderable, but supposed on the Spanish to have been very great. In November the Spaniards added to their parallels on the west, exhibiting a perfect and formidable appearance, which General Elliott

saw, if allowed to go on, would prove most destructive to the garrison ; he therefore formed the daring project of making a sortie from the garrison for the destruction of these works, and which the enemy, flushed with the consciousness of superior numbers, never dreamed of. At midnight, on the 26th November, 1781, a chivalrous band, consisting of nearly 2000 men, assembled on the red sands in three columns, and when the moon had nearly finished her nightly course, began their desperate march on the Spanish lines ;—these were speedily reached, the enemy's fire received, the parapets gallantly mounted, and the ardour of the assailants being irresistible, the Spaniards gave way on every side, abandoning in an instant, and with the utmost precipitation, those works which had cost them so much expense, and employed so many months to perfect. A party of sailors aided our artillery in the work of destruction ; the flames spread with astonishing rapidity ; columns of fire and smoke rolled from the works, illuminating the surrounding country ; and the Spaniards, whether from astonishment or fear, made no effort to save the lines, although only within a few hundred yards of their batteries, mounting 135 pieces of heavy artillery, which, however, kept up a ridiculous fire on the fortress. In one hour the object of the sortie was completed, trains laid to the magazines, and as the rear of our little band of heroes entered the garrison, the principal Spanish magazine blew up with a tremendous explosion, throwing up vast masses of timber, which added to the general conflagration. Our loss on performing this splendid achievement was

only four privates killed, a lieutenant and twenty-four men wounded, and one missing. The history of the British army, pregnant as it is with gallant deeds, presents none more daring or better executed than the one just detailed, in which not even a musket, working tool, or other implement was left behind. For several days the Spaniards seemed unable to act after their late disgrace; their batteries continued in flames, nor were any attempts made to extinguish the fire. In the beginning of December they roused from their reverie, and upwards of 1000 men set to work in an endeavour to reconstruct the parallels.

The bombardment had now continued from April 12th to the close of the year, and the British loss was as follows:—

	Officers.	Sergts.	Drumrs.	Rank & File.	Total.
Killed and died of } wounds }	3	10	1	108	122
Disabled	2	7	1	36	46
Wounded	13	22	6	359	400

So well were the enemy's guns directed, that *one* shot coming through the capped embrasures on the Princess Amelia's battery (Willis's), took *seven* legs off *four* men of the 72nd and 73rd regiments, and wounded a fifth. When brisk firing was going on, two boys, with extraordinary quick eyes, were usually stationed with any large party, to inform the men when the Spaniards' fire was directed towards them; their sight was so good as to see the enemy's shot almost the instant it quitted the gun; and in the instance above mentioned, one of these boys had been reproving the men for not attending to his warnings,

and had just turned his head when he observed the fatal shot coming, and instantly called out to take care ; his judicious caution was however of no avail. From January to May, 1782, little occurred to diversify even the monotony of a siege ; and in the early part of May, twenty-four hours elapsed in which, for the first time during thirteen months, there had been a cessation of firing. In fact, at this period the enemy were making preparations for a grand *floating* battery of fire-proof ships, with which they resolved to aid a powerful bombardment from the land side, which however was at intervals still continued, and often with destructive effects. In July the Duke De Crillon assumed the command of the siege, and the combined army was understood to amount to forty-five battalions of infantry ; the floating battery, with which it was intended to annihilate Gibraltar, had, it was said, ten ships constructed for the occasion, fortified six or seven feet thick on the larboard side, with green timber, bolted with iron, cork, junk, and raw hides ; gun-proof on the top, with a descent for the shells to glide off ; they were to be moored within half a gun-shot of the walls with iron chains, and large boats with mantlets, to let down with hinges, were to be ready for the disembarkation of 40,000 disciplined troops, headed by the Count D'Artois, brother to the King of France, and covered by a squadron of men-of-war, bombs, ketches, and gun-boats.

In August ten thousand men were at work on the Spanish lines, within 800 yards of Gibraltar ; the parallel embraced each shore of the isthmus, with a

stupendous communication or outwork in front, the epaulment entirely raised with sand-bags, from ten to twelve feet high, with a proportionate thickness. The Spanish Gazette described the parallel as of 230 toises (a toise = a fathom = six feet) in length, and composed of 1,600,000 sand-bags.

Our brave fellows evinced no fear on observing these determined efforts to destroy them; the strength of the garrison, with the marine brigade, including officers, was about 7500 men, of whom 400 were in the hospital, and with this comparative handful, the assaults of the enemy were quietly provided against. As an indication of the chivalrous spirit in which this desperate contest was carried on both by the Spaniards and the British, I subjoin the following correspondence between the Duke De Crillon and General Elliott, shortly after the former took the command of the Spanish and French forces.

“ TO HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL ELLIOTT.

“ *Camp of Buena-Vista, 19th August, 1782.*

“ SIR,—His Royal Highness, Count d'Artois, who has received permission from the King, his brother, to assist at the siege as a volunteer in the combined army, of which their most Christian and Catholic Majesties have honoured me with the command, arrived in this camp the 15th inst.

“ This young Prince has been pleased, in passing through Madrid, to take charge of some letters which had been sent to that capital from this place, and which are addressed to persons belonging to your garrison: his Royal Highness has desired me to transmit them to you, and that to this mark of his goodness and attention I should add the strongest expressions of esteem for your person and character. I feel the greatest pleasure in giving this mark of condescension in this august Prince, as it furnishes me with a pretext, which I have been

anxiously looking for these two months that I have been in camp, to assure you of the high esteem I have conceived for your Excellency, of the sincere desire I feel of deserving yours, and of the pleasure to which I look forward of becoming your friend, after I shall have learned to render myself worthy of the honour, by facing you as an enemy. His Highness the Duke de Bourbon, who arrived here twenty-four hours after the Count d'Artois, desires also that I should assure you of his particular esteem. Permit me, Sir, to offer a few trifles for your table, of which I am sure you must stand in need, as I know you live entirely on vegetables: I should be glad to know what kind you like best. I shall add a few game for the gentlemen of your household, and some ice, which I presume will not be disagreeable in the excessive heat of this climate at this season of the year. I hope you will be obliging enough to accept the small portion which I send with this letter.

“ I have the honour to be, &c.

“ B. B. DUC DE CRILLON.”

“ TO HIS EXCELLENCY THE DUC DE CRILLON, &c. &c.

“ *Gibraltar, August 20th, 1782.*

“ SIR,—I find myself highly honoured by your obliging letter of yesterday, in which your Excellency was so kind as to inform me of the arrival in your camp of His Royal Highness the Count d'Artois, and the Duke de Bourbon, to serve as volunteers at the siege. These Princes have shown their judgment in making choice of a master in the art of war, whose abilities cannot fail to form great warriors. I am overpowered with the condescension of His Royal Highness in suffering some letters for persons in this town to be conveyed from Madrid in his carriages. I flatter myself that your Excellency will give my most profound respect to His Royal Highness, and to the Duke de Bourbon, for the expressions of esteem with which they have been pleased to honour so insignificant a person as I am.

“ I return a thousand thanks to your Excellency for your handsome present of fruits, vegetables, and game. You will excuse me, however, I trust, when I assure you, that in accept-

ing your present I have broken through a resolution to which I had faithfully adhered since the beginning of the war ; and that was, never to receive or procure, by any means whatever, any provisions or other commodity for my own private use : so that, without any preference, every thing is sold publicly here ; and the private soldier, if he has money, can become a purchaser, as well as the governor. I confess, I make it a point of honour to partake both of plenty and scarcity in common with the lowest of my brave fellow soldiers. This furnishes me with an excuse for the liberty I now take of entreating your Excellency not to heap any more favours on me of this kind, as in future I cannot convert your presents to my own private use. Indeed, to be plain with your Excellency, though vegetables at this season are scarce with us, every man has got a quantity proportioned to the labour which he has bestowed in raising them. The English are naturally fond of gardening and cultivation ; and here we find our amusement in it, during the intervals of rest from public duty. The promise which the Duke de Crillon makes, of honouring me in proper time and place with his friendship, lays me under infinite obligations. The interest of our Sovereigns being once solidly settled, I shall with eagerness embrace the first opportunity to avail myself of so precious a treasure.

“ I have the honour to be, &c.

“ G. A. ELLIOTT.”

The fire from both parties was very brisk in the beginning of September, that of our batteries set fire repeatedly to their lines, while so well were their guns served, that Major Martin, of the Artillery, had the cock of his hat shot off close to the crown by a twenty-six-pounder ; the Major, however, experienced no other injury than being stunned by the wind of the shot. On the morning of the 8th September an almost simultaneous attack was made on all sides ; *nine* line-of-battle ships passed along the garrison,

discharging several broadsides at the works ; fifteen gun and mortar-boats approached the town, and 170 pieces of ordnance, all of large calibre, opened in one magnificent discharge from the Spanish lines. The enemy kept up this tremendous fire on the 9th, resumed it at gun-fire on the 10th, and at 7 A. M. had discharged (including the expenditure on the 8th) 5527 shot, and 2302 shells, exclusive of the number fired by the men-of-war and mortar-boats. The bombardment continued at the rate of 4000 shots in the twenty-four hours, when on the morning of the 12th September, the combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to seven three-deckers, thirty-one ships of two decks, three frigates, and a number of xebèques, bomb ketches, and hospital ships, entered the bay, and in the afternoon were all at anchor between the Orange Grove and Algesiras. It required stout British hearts not to quail before this formidable armament ; forty-seven sail of the line, ten battering ships, deemed perfect in design, and esteemed invincible, carrying 212 guns, innumerable frigates, xebèques, bomb ketches, cutters, gun and mortar-boats, and disembarking craft, were then assembled in Gibraltar Bay ; on the land side were the most stupendous batteries and works, mounting 200 pieces of heavy ordnance, protected by an army of 40,000 men, commanded by a victorious and active general, in the immediate presence of two princes of the blood royal of France, and many of the highest nobility of both countries, the *coup d'œil* affording a grand military spectacle such as the annals of war had never before, and has never since, presented. The Spaniards and

French deemed success certain ; our little band of countrymen hoped for the best ; and as the danger thickened around, instead of yielding to despair, their courage and presence of mind rose with the emergency ; indeed it is impossible, even at this distance of time, to reflect without enthusiasm on the conduct of those men who on so eventful an occasion raised higher than it had ever yet been—the true nobility of Britons.

The batteries from the Spanish lines, which had continued their formidable fire, opened on the morning of the 13th September, 1782, and were soon sustained by the battering ships, which moved to the attack in admirable order, actually mooring within 900 yards of the king's bastion, and in a few minutes *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment from the garrison and their assailants. After some hours, the battering ships were found to be no less formidable than they were represented ; our heaviest shells often rebounded off their sloped summits, whilst thirty-two-pound shot seemed incapable of making an impression on their dense sides. Frequently the besieged flattered themselves that these floating masses of destruction were on fire, but by application of fire engines from within, the incipient conflagration was speedily extinguished. About noon the enemy's cannon, which had been previously too much elevated, became very destructive, and we then commenced what our troops had long looked forward to with a prospect of success—the firing of *red hot balls*. The fury of the British troops was now roused to an almost superhuman pitch ; the

whole of their gigantic energies was directed towards the battering ships ; they disregarded in a great measure the land batteries, and our guns absolutely vomited forth fire in the shape of red hot balls, carcasses, and shells of every description. For some hours the fierce conflict continued with doubtful success ; but towards evening the incredible labour of the English troops began to be crowned with success : the Admiral's ship was in flames, the second in command was soon in the same awful condition, and by 8 P.M. the firing had almost entirely ceased from the attacking squadron. Our firing was continued throughout the night, and the cries, shrieks, and moans of the dead and dying told a piteous tale, which the morning's dawn painfully verified. About two o'clock on the morning of the 14th, one of the battering ships was a terrific blaze from stem to stern ; another to the southward was in a similar state, and the flames threw a vivid light over the scene of desolation around, which was heightened by six other of the battering ships being on fire between three and four A.M. Yet, amidst all this misery and suffering, it is delightful to record the triumph of humanity, even over the brutalizing passions of war ;—Brigadier Curtis, with the sailors of the Navy, risked repeatedly their own lives in saving their enemies from the devouring element, when they had been abandoned by their terrified fellow combatants and countrymen. Of the six battering ships which were in flames, three blew up before 11 o'clock, the other three burnt to the water's edge, the magazines having been wetted by their officers previous to

their escape ; the remaining two large battering ships the victors were in the hope of saving as trophies, but shortly after one of them took fire, and blew up with a terrible explosion ; the other was burnt by our sailors, as it was found impossible to finally save it. The loss sustained by the Spaniards could never be well ascertained, but from the numbers seen dead on board, it could not have been less than 2000 men¹, including the prisoners ; the casualties of the garrison, on the contrary, were trifling, consisting in killed, of one officer, two serjeants, and thirteen rank and file ; and in wounded, of five officers, and sixty-three rank and file ; and let it be remembered that the enemy had in this action more than 300 pieces of heavy ordnance in play, whilst the garrison had only eighty cannon, seven mortars, and nine howitzers in opposition ; with which, however, they expended upwards of 8300 rounds (more than *half* of which were *hot shot*), and 716 barrels of gunpowder. The Spaniards were so much mortified by this defeat, that preparations were made for a desperate attack, with a view to carry, if possible, the garrison by storm ; but the project was overruled by the Duke De Crillon, who thought such a dernier resort would expose the army and fleet to immediate destruction. The whole efforts of the enemy were now directed towards the land batteries, and every effort made to extend their works and destroy ours, by firing at the garrison from 600 to 1000 shot every twenty-four hours, which was

¹ The battering ships had, it was said, 142 guns in use, and 70 in reserve ; the whole manned by 5260 men.

continued with more or less vivacity throughout the months of September, October, and November; during which period, and in the face of such powerful artillery, our engineers rebuilt the whole flank of Prince Orange bastion (120 feet in length), with solid masonry, a fact scarcely paralleled in any siege. The enemy now turned a great part of their attention towards blowing up the north part of the rock by means of a mine, a project which they also formed during the siege of 1727; but being much annoyed in this attempt, they began to relinquish the idea of recovering Gibraltar by force, and towards the conclusion of December, and throughout the month of January, 1783, confined themselves to annoying the garrison by attacks of gun and mortar-boats in regular reliefs, which caused considerable mischief. February, 1783, was ushered in by an animated fire from our works, the effects of which were felt throughout the Spanish lines; when, to the relief of the besiegers rather than of the besieged, on the second day of the month, the Duke De Crillon announced by a flag of truce to General Elliott, that the preliminaries of a general peace had been signed between Great Britain, France, and Spain. When the boats of the heretofore belligerents met, the Spaniards rose up with transports of joy, shouting, "*We are all friends!*" and delivered the letters of peace with the greatest satisfaction; in the evening all firing finally ceased; on the 5th the port of Gibraltar was declared *open*, and an amicable intercourse was commenced between the Spanish and British lines, while the latter were waiting the official communication of the intelligence

from London, which at length arrived on the 10th March, 1784.

Thus ended a siege which, taken in connexion as to its duration, (three years, seven months, and twelve days,) the powerful opposing force of the enemy, and the quantity of ammunition expended, is not probably to be paralleled in the annals of ancient or modern warfare. The nation at home, as well they might be, were proud of the defence which a handful of Britons had made against the united efforts of Spain and France; the cordial thanks of both houses of Parliament were given to the gallant defenders of Gibraltar, and the brave veteran General Elliott was invested with the most honourable Order of the Bath, as a mark of his Majesty's royal approbation of the heroic defence which this distinguished officer had made of one of England's maritime outposts.

The trifling loss of the besieged was not a little remarkable, when the strength of the besiegers is considered : it was as follows :—

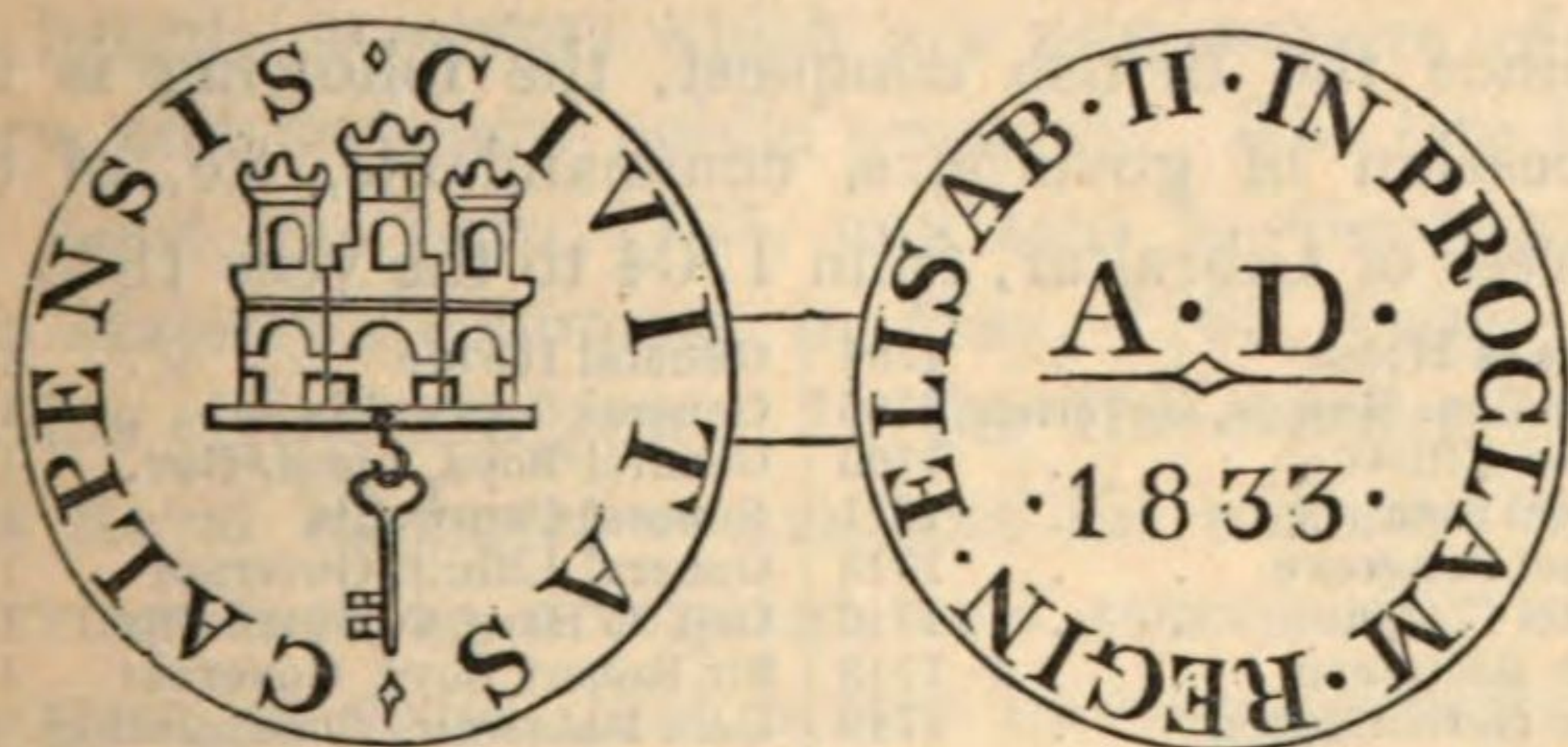
	Officers.	Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.	Total.
Killed	5	19	2	197	223
Died of wounds	1	6	2	101	110
Died of sickness	7	22	2	505	536
Disabled by wounds	3	13	2	120	138
Wounded, but recovered.....	31	46	20	773	870
Deserted.....	...	...	...	43	43*

* The desertions from the Spanish side to the English were far more numerous.

The ammunition expended, consisted, on our side, of shot, 57,163; shells, 129,151; grape, 12,681; carcasses, 926; light balls, 679; making a total of 200,000 rounds; and with the gun-boat addition of 4728 shot, 205,328: the gunpowder expended was very near 8,000 barrels, and the number of ordnance damaged and destroyed during the siege, 53. As regards similar details on the Spanish side, we have but few data. According to a laboratory account, the number of shot and shells from the lines was—shot, 175,741; shells, 68,363; and from the Spanish gun-boats, in shot and shells, 14,283; shewing 258,387 rounds, all of a heavy nature. The number of barrels of powder expended in this immense discharge, or the number of ordnance destroyed, has never been ascertained; it must, however, have been very great.

Since this memorable period, Gibraltar has remained in our possession unmolested. Few events have occurred requiring notice in a work of this nature. The chronological account of the rulers and governors of Gibraltar, from 1309 to 1835, is thus shown, and it will be seen that Gibraltar was several times a kingly title of the monarchs of Spain; indeed, I find by a letter from the Rock, under date 17th July, 1835, that the present ruler at Madrid has taken the title of *Queen of Gibraltar*! the reason for which is thus explained:—On our capture of Gibraltar, in 1704, the Spaniards left it, and huddled round a hermitage of St. Roque, situated on a hill about five miles from the fortress; from huts they began to build houses, and ultimately the place obtained, on

account of the loyalty of the inhabitants, the designation of a city, which was endowed with diverse privileges; and the people of St. Roque have, ever since, in all public acts, styled themselves *the inhabitants of Gibraltar residing at St. Roque*. In 1833, however, on the proclamation of Isabella II., the Roquians went still further, by styling their city or town *itself*, on a medal struck for the occasion, Gibraltar (Calpe, the ancient name of the rock). The following is a fac-simile of the medal:—On the one side is the arms of Gibraltar, given to it by Ferdinand and Isabella, consisting of a castle and key pendent, with the words, “CALPENSIS CIVITAS,” and on the obverse, “IN PROCLAM. REGIN. ELIZAB. II.”



I give the foregoing, because I think it deserving the prompt attention of our Government, who should require an explanation from the Queen Isabella, and a withdrawal of the title at once, to prevent any future claim.

Until our occupation of Gibraltar, the following were the principal rulers:—

1309-10. Ferdinand IV., King of Castile, took Gibraltar from the Moors, and lived here a short time. The place not of much importance before this time.

1331. Dn. Vasco Perez de Meyra was Governor.
1333. Abomelic, son of the Emperor of Fez, took Gibraltar, and added it to his royal titles.
- 1349-50. Albuhaben, son of Albuhaben (of Fez) was in possession of Gibraltar.
1427. Gibraltar was under the usurper and tyrant Mahomet, called the little.
1462. Dn. Juan de Guzman, first Duke of the House of Medina Sidonia, took Gibraltar from the Moors, and Henry IV. of Castile took the title of King of Gibraltar, as Abomelic had done before in 1333.
1462. Pedro de Porras was made Governor by Henry, afterwards Dn. Bertrand de la Cueva. The Duke of Medina recovered it, and it was added to his titles.
1502. Gibraltar was united to the Crown of Ferdinand and Isabella, and had Spanish governors till 1704.
1704. Marquis de Salinas, the Spanish governor.

Since the British conquest, the following is the succession of governors, commandants, &c. of the fortress of Gibraltar, from 1704 to the year 1835.

Prince of Hesse . . .	1704	General Irwine . . .	1766
Major-Gen. Ramos, Governor	1705	General Cornwallis . . .	1767
Colonel Elliott . . .	1706	General Boyd, Lieut.-Gov.	1769
General Stanwix . . .	1711	General Cornwallis . . .	1769
Colonel Congreve . . .	1713	General Elliott, Governor	1777
Colonel Cotton . . .	1716	Gen. O'Hara, Commanding	1787
Major Battereau . . .	1718	Sir Robert Boyd, Governor	1791
Major Hetherington . . .	1719	Gen. Rainsford, Commanding	1794
Colonel Kane . . .	1720	General O'Hara, Governor	1795
Lord Portmore . . .	1721	Gen. Barnett, Commanding	1802
Col. Hargrave, Commanding	1722	Duke of Kent, Governor	1802
General Clayton . . .	1728	Sir T. Trigge, Lieut.-Gover.	1803
General Sabine, Governor	1730	Gen. Fox, Lieut.-Governor	1805
General Columbine . . .	1739	Gen. Drummond, Command.	1806
General Clayton, Governor	1739	Sir Hew Dalrymple, Com.	1806
Gen. Hargrave, Command.		Gen. Drummond, Command.	1808
General Bland . . .	1748	Sir J. Cradock, Commanding	1809
Lord George Beauclerc . . .	1751	Gen. Campbell, Lieut.-Gov.	1810
Colonel Herbert . . .	1752	Gen. Smith, Commanding	1814
General Braddock . . .	1754	Gen. Sir G. Don, Lieut.-Gov.	1814
General Fowkes, Governor	1754	Earl of Chatham, Governor	1820
Lord Tyrawley . . .	1756	Gen. Sir G. Don, Lieut.-Gov.	1825
Earl of Panmure, Command.	1757	Lieut.-Gen. Sir Wm. Houston,	1831
Lord Home, Governor . . .	1758	Lieutenant Governor . . .	
Colonel Tovey . . .	1761	Major-General Sir Alexander	1835
General Parslow . . .	1761	Woodford, Lieut.-Governor	
General Cornwallis . . .	1762		

It would be unjust to pass on to the next section without adverting to one of the governors of Gibraltar, whose character has been so little understood as to give rise to exceedingly unfair misrepresentations—I allude to his late Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, whose career through life I have attentively examined, without finding in it one dark spot on which the eye of malevolence could dwell; and as it has ever been to me a most pleasing duty to rescue the memory of the good from unmerited censure, I hope that under present circumstances I may be excused for alluding here to some events relating to Gibraltar, and its illustrious governor, in the hope that on a future occasion I shall be enabled to dwell more at length on events which are now matters of history, and therefore public property. The late Duke of Kent was born 1767, and sent to Germany by his Majesty's command, in May, 1785, being then in his eighteenth year. In the Hanoverian service his Royal Highness commenced his military duties, serving first as a serjeant, and successively rising in rank, in order, that before he was permitted to command, he might learn to obey. In January, 1790, the Duke returned to England, and after passing ten days at home, embarked at the short notice of forty-eight hours for Gibraltar, without the slightest allowance being made for his outfit, while in Hanover he was only allowed a guinea and a half a week pocket money.

In May, 1791, the Duke was ordered to Canada, without even, on this occasion, any allowance being made for his outfit; which was also the case when

his Royal Highness was ordered, in December, 1793, to the West Indies, to join the army under the late Lord Grey, and where his gallant behaviour, in leading attacks against the enemy, was such as to require the repeated reproofs of the commander-in-chief for the daring courage displayed. At the close of the campaign in 1794, the Duke of Kent, pursuant to his Majesty's command, returned to North America, where he was placed on the staff, and obliged to incur the expense of *a fourth* outfit, for which no reimbursement was ever made. His Royal Highness served at Halifax as major-general until 1796, and as lieutenant-general to 1798, when he was compelled to return to England in consequence of the injury received by his horse falling, when riding home after a garrison field day. In May, 1799, the Duke was promoted to the rank of general, and appointed commander-in-chief in North America; but, unfortunately, the transport in which his equipment was embarked, was totally lost on the coast of North America.

In the autumn of 1800, the precarious state of the Duke's health obliged his Royal Highness to obtain leave of absence, and he returned to England, and in March, 1802, was appointed to the government of Gibraltar. Here an opportunity presented itself for the liquidation of debts contracted, through no extravagance, but by reason of the unfair manner in which his Royal Highness was treated, by being obliged to keep up establishments suited to his birth and rank, on expensive and arduous foreign stations; while I regret to add, that from some erroneous feelings on

four occasions, (when he was compelled to furnish a large outfit,) no allowance was made to his Royal Highness. The losses incurred by shipwreck, &c.¹ tended

¹ In proceeding from Canada to join the British army in the West Indies, his Royal Highness, finding the St. Lawrence closed for the winter, crossed into the United States in the midst of most severe weather, and, in doing so, lost his whole equipage, valued at 2000*l.*, in Lake Champlain, by the breaking in of the ice. In 1794, when again in North America, his Royal Highness ordered out from England an equipage to be sent to his station. It was embarked in his Majesty's packet *Antelope*, which sailed from Falmouth on 19th August, 1794, and was captured by a squadron of French privateers on the 19th September following, thus incurring another loss of 2000*l.* His Royal Highness was, of course, obliged to renew the order for another equipage, which being executed, was shipped on board his Majesty's packet *Tankerville*, which sailed from Falmouth on the 14th of December, 1794, and was captured on the passage to Halifax on the 10th of February following: this was another loss of 2000*l.* Another attempt was made by his Royal Highness to procure an equipage when nominated as Lieut.-General at Halifax, in 1796, and 4000*l.* of stores, &c. were shipped on board the *Recovery* transport, at Deptford, under the direction of Captain Raines; but this transport also fell into the hands of the enemy, as certified by Sir Rupert George. Thus *four* times was the equipage of his Royal Highness totally lost; but the *fifth* loss was the heaviest, and was ordered in 1799, when the Duke was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the British forces in North America. The transport ship *Francis*, wholly laden with his Royal Highness's baggage and equipage, was totally lost on Sable Island, by which 11,000*l.* was added to the previous heavy obligations of the illustrious commander, amounting altogether to 21,000*l.*, for which the Treasury refused any compensation, excepting the loss on Lake Champlain, which was not reimbursed until thirteen years after it occurred.

still more to extend his obligations. And here, I may add, that when his Royal Highness applied at the Treasury for the same trifling outfit (2000*l.*) granted on his appointment as Commander-in-Chief for North America, he was informed that such was not usual, as the Government of Gibraltar was considered *so very good a thing*, that its emoluments would soon clear him of any expenses of equipment; indeed, the income from the wine houses' licenses alone was, under General O'Hara, (the Duke's predecessor,) 7000*l.* per annum; but by reason of his Royal Highness' measures for the suppression of drunkenness, it was reduced to 2000*l.* per annum. Nothing, therefore, could more strongly illustrate his Royal Highness's strictly moral and honourable character, than the fact that one of the earliest steps which he took on assuming the government of Gibraltar was the annihilation of the principal source of his income, which was derived from the import of wines and spirituous liquors, and the license for the sale thereof. Bred up a good soldier and a strict disciplinarian, the Duke of Kent viewed with alarm and disgust the disorganized state of the British army in the garrison of Gibraltar, a portion of which had recently returned from the East, flushed with victory, accustomed to excesses, and abounding in money, from the lavish waste of which the highest officers had been replenishing their coffers, and were still interested in its continuance. No soldier who regards discipline as the most essential ingredient of an army could have hesitated as to the remedy to be applied. His Royal Highness endeavoured to recal the officers and men to a sense of the

duty they owed to themselves and their country ;— he himself, who never exacted a duty from the meanest soldier which he would have hesitated to perform himself, set an example to the troops of punctuality, order, and sobriety of conduct. I have now before me a copy of the Duke's garrison orders, printed at Gibraltar in 1803, in every line of which I find proofs of a zealous desire to restore the discipline of the soldiers, and by even forcing an attention to what might otherwise be considered minutiae, endeavouring to remove that laziness of habit and carelessness of manner so detrimental to the happiness and efficiency of the soldier ; in these laudable efforts, I regret to say, his Royal Highness was far from being seconded by those whose immediate duty it was to have promptly and cordially aided his views. On this point I am, however, now unwilling to dwell, because the censure due refers also to noble personages in England, who, jealous of the Duke of Kent's popularity at home, saw with pleasure any step which might possibly tend to lower him in public estimation. An occasion was not long wanting for designing men to work on the minds of the soldiery, who had before them the remembrance of two former mutinies in the garrison, when the malcontents escaped unpunished ; and the issuing of the following orders respecting the due regulation of the canteens and wine-shops, (which instantly of course affected the income of his Royal Highness, who profited by the quantity consumed, and the number of canteens established,) became the exciting cause of a real or pretended mutiny, on the suppression of which the Duke of Kent, unsupported

by his officers, and against his own courageous and high-minded principles, was obliged to return to England.

STANDING REGULATIONS FOR REGIMENTAL CANTEENS AT GIBRALTAR.—(Order Book, 1803, printed at the Garrison Library.)

1. The canteen is invariably to be held by a sergeant of respectability, and one who will keep up and enforce his authority *as such* : he is to be allowed the assistance of one careful man. It is not to be open, on any day, until one hour after guard mounting ; it is not to remain open later than the drummer's call beats for tattoo, viz. half an hour before second evening gun-fire ; it is to be shut whenever the regiment is on parade, or out in the field, and not to open on Sundays until after Divine Service in the Convent Chapel is over.

2. No spirituous liquor, whether mixed or unmixed, of any sort or kind, is to be sold upon any pretence whatsoever ; the sale, therefore, of liquor is limited to wine, malt-liquor, cyder, and beer.

3. No cards, dice, or gambling of any description, are to be allowed in it.

4. No liquor whatsoever is to be sold for any other purpose than that of being drunk in the canteen ; as none is on any pretence to be carried out of it, except for the use of the families of outlayers, and then the quantity sold to any one person is not to exceed one pint, nor is any to be delivered to children under the age of fifteen years.

5. No liquor whatsoever is to be sold on trust ; and therefore, if any non-commissioned officer or soldier be suffered to depart without paying for what he has been supplied with before he leaves the canteen, he is cleared of all obligation to pay afterwards.

6. No non-commissioned officer or soldier is to be permitted to leave in pledge any part of his dress, necessaries, or appointments, for liquor, nor is any thing to be received but money ; therefore, if any one calls for more than he can pay for on the spot, he is immediately to be sent prisoner to the regimental

guard-house, charged with the crime of disobedience of orders, for the purpose of being brought to a court-martial, and punished for the same.

7. No non-commissioned officers or soldiers of any other corps but that to which the canteen belongs, nor any stranger of any description, except being passed in by a commissioned officer, the sergeant-major, or quarter-master sergeant, is to be admitted into the canteen without producing permission in writing from the commanding officer of the corps ; nor are any persons to be supplied with liquor from it, but the non-commissioned officers, &c. belonging to the regiment.

8. No non-commissioned officer or soldier who has the least appearance of intoxication, is to be permitted to enter the canteen ; such as show a disposition to drunkenness, or rioting are immediately to be sent to their barracks, and if disobedient to the orders of the non-commissioned officer holding the canteen, when directed to go there, are to be sent prisoners to the guard-house, with a crime against them, for refusing to obey his orders.

9. The non-commissioned officer having charge of the canteen, is to be obeyed by the other non-commissioned officers and soldiers, as next in rank to the quarter-master sergeant, in every thing relating to the carrying on the business of the canteen. He and his assistant have authority to call upon the barrack guard for assistance, whenever good order and regularity are in danger of being disturbed ; but, on no other occasion, except when called upon for this purpose, are non-commissioned officers or soldiers, on duty, to enter the canteen.

10. The captain of the day and orderly officer are each of them frequently to visit the canteen, and if they discover any irregularity or breach of these regulations, during the time they are on duty, they are to report the same to the commanding officer in writing.

11. The established price of wine and malt liquor is to be at the following rate, and never to be altered without an order from the commanding officer, viz. Malaga, two reals per quart ; black wine, one real and a half per quart ; porter, one real and a half per bottle ; and beer one real per quart.

The wine to be sold in the same state as it is purchased from the merchant, and any attempt to adulterate it is, on detection, to be punished in the most exemplary manner.

As before observed, the rigid enforcement of the foregoing orders, so creditable to the head and heart of the Duke of Kent, ended in a mutiny of the disorganised troops, and the Duke of Kent, after quelling the mutiny, returned to England, where his Royal Highness in vain sought redress from the existing authorities, who ought to have punished the *second in command* in Gibraltar. Captain Conran, referring subsequently to this affair, says, in a letter to the Duke of Kent,—

“ It is a subject I never can reflect on but with the most heartfelt concern, as even at this distant period it appears to make such impressions on your Royal Highness’ mind. Every loyal and well affected man of that garrison must think and feel as I do, and must regret that *the state of the garrison* PRIOR to your Royal Highness’ coming to the command of it, and indeed the *weak*, I may add, *worse than no support that your Royal Highness received from the* SECOND IN COMMAND, never was laid before the public.”

The efforts of the late Duke of Kent to obtain an investigation into his conduct as Governor of Gibraltar were as unceasing as they were honourable to his character and open-minded integrity ; and I cannot, in justice to his Royal Highness’ lamented memory, refuse myself the gratification of annexing the following letters which passed between the Dukes of Kent and York, and Lord Castlereagh, in which, with a pertinacity and manliness betokening a thorough Englishman, his Royal Highness earnestly and repeatedly sought that which is the birth-right of the

meanest Briton—not to be condemned unheard—let the reader judge how the triumphant appeal of innocence and integrity was met.

No. 1.

“ *Kensington Palace, 23rd April, 1808.*

“ My Lord,—Being unwilling to occasion any trouble to the members of his Majesty's Government during the time their close attendance to their duty in parliament left them little leisure to devote otherwise than to the important concerns of the country in their respective departments, I have delayed until the moment of the recess to address your Lordship upon a subject of the most material consequence to myself, inasmuch as it seriously affects my character both as an officer and as a man.

“ The circumstance I allude to will be found by your Lordship on referring to the annexed enclosure, marked A, the same being the copy of a letter from the Commander in Chief to me of the 6th of February last, in the second paragraph of which he is pleased to make use of the following expressions:—‘ It is at all times a matter of great regret to me to recal to your recollection the unfortunate events which led to your return from that fortress (Gibraltar), which have *already*, and *must ever preclude* the confidential servants of the King, from advising his Majesty to permit you to resume your situation there.’

“ Before I proceed farther, I conceive it necessary to declare to your Lordship that until I received the above communication, which, coming from the quarter it does, I cannot but consider as official, I never entertained the most distant idea of his Majesty's confidential servants having come to a decision respecting me of the nature therein signified, or I should, the moment I had been apprised thereof, have felt it a duty I owed myself to request a communication of the grounds upon which such a resolution was adopted, and which carries with it a sentence of condemnation upon my conduct

when in command of the fortress of Gibraltar, which I am conscious I do not merit. The object therefore of my present address to your Lordship is to demand, *as a matter of justice*, which I consider myself as having a right to claim of you, as Secretary of State for that department, to which the concerns of Gibraltar more particularly belong, that I may be made acquainted with these statements, which having been laid before his Majesty's Government have induced the members of it to form that determination relative to me, which is expressed in the communication of the Commander in Chief, in order that I may have an opportunity of exculpating my character and conduct of whatever charges these may contain to my prejudice, and without which I cannot conceive that such an arbitrary resolution could have been formed. By reference to the annexed copy of an official communication B, that occasioned my return to England in 1803, and which was transmitted to me by the Commander in Chief, your Lordship will perceive that it was specifically expressed by Lord Pelham, 'as his Majesty's pleasure that I should return to England immediately, upon the consideration that it might be desirable that the different departments of his government at home should have the advantage of some personal communication with me upon the recent events at Gibraltar.' To obtain this personal communication became the object of my most anxious wishes from the moment of my arrival in England; and I am now in possession of documents which will prove that if my application to that effect was not complied with, it did not arise from any want of exertion on my part to obtain an interview with the different departments of his Majesty's Government, upon a subject naturally so interesting to my feelings, and so very important to my character. When, therefore, I was informed through the channel of the Commander in Chief by the Secretary of State at the head of the department to which Gibraltar then belonged, in his letter of the 28th of June, 1803, of which the enclosed C is a copy, that there was nothing in his department upon which he had occasion to trouble me with any inquiries relative to the events alluded to, although he had himself expressly sig-

nified that it was for the purpose of enabling the members of his Majesty's Government to hold communication with me upon the events that had occurred at Gibraltar, that I had been requested to come over, and when in his letter of the 15th July, 1803, of which the enclosure D is a copy, the Commander in Chief was pleased to state that he was not aware that any department of his Majesty's civil government could officially communicate with me upon the subject of Gibraltar, except the Secretary of State for the Home Department, I trust it will not be thought presumption in me if I drew the inference that the members who then composed his Majesty's Government attached no blame to my conduct, or if I considered my not being called upon then to resume my command, as having no connection with a censure upon my conduct, but wholly to be ascribed to other causes, to which, from motives of delicacy, I forbear alluding; as such I remained perfectly quiet until the moment when I felt that my character required I should make an effort to return to my duty. That effort your Lordship will perceive has produced an unequivocal declaration of the sentiments of his Majesty's confidential servants towards me, which I can only suppose to have been adopted in consequence of my conduct having been grossly misstated to them. Your Lordship will therefore not be surprised at my being anxious to repel these misrepresentations, and of my claiming on these grounds the rights of an Englishman to be made acquainted, as I have before observed, with the nature and extent of the accusation against me, and also of the names of those who dare accuse me; and that the matter may be fully investigated in whatever manner his Majesty's ministers may choose to point out, for it cannot be otherwise than gratifying to me to meet the verdict of any set of men whose opinions on my conduct shall be formed on the solemn evidence and information given by those who witnessed my zeal for the good of his Majesty's service during the period I resided and commanded in my government. If, however, this right shall be refused me, which I trust in God it may not, I then claim that the assertion already quoted, as made by the Commander in Chief, may be

retracted in terms as strong and explicit as those in which it is worded.

“ I remain, &c. &c.

“ EDWARD.”

“ The Right Honourable
Lord Castlereagh.”

ENCLOSURE IN THE FOREGOING.—A.

“ *Horse Guards, February 6th, 1808.*

“ Dear Edward,—I take the earliest opportunity to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of this morning, and am fully sensible of your candour in communicating to me the copy of a letter which you have thought yourself bound to address to his Majesty, requesting leave to return, under the present circumstances, to Gibraltar.

“ It is at all times a matter of great regret to me to recal to your recollection the unfortunate events which led to your return from that fortress, and which have already, and must ever preclude the confidential servants of the King from advising his Majesty to permit you to resume your situation there.

“ I had hoped, from the number of ineffectual applications which you have at different times made upon this unlucky subject, that you would have been prevented from renewing them ; and I can only repeat how much I have lamented that no arrangement could be made to relieve you from the embarrassment which you must undoubtedly always labour under, so long as you retain the government of Gibraltar.

“ I am, &c. &c.

“ FREDERICK.”

ENCLOSURE IN THE FIRST LETTER.—D.

“ *Horse Guards, July 15th, 1803.*

“ Sir,—I was yesterday favoured with your Royal Highness's letter of the 13th inst., from which I am to understand that, in consequence of Lord Pelham's letter, of which a copy was sent to your Royal Highness in mine of the 29th ult., you are no longer desirous of a personal meeting with his Lordship ; but wish that the other departments of his Majesty's Government

which may be willing to communicate with you should be pointed out to you. Upon this I can only observe that I am not myself aware that any department of his Majesty's Civil Government can officially communicate with your Royal Highness upon the subject of Gibraltar, except the Secretary of State for the Home Department; but, should your Royal Highness think otherwise, I can only repeat that I cannot have any objection to your addressing yourself personally to them.

" I am, &c. &c.

" FREDERICK, Commander in Chief."

No. 2.

" *St. James's Square, 3rd May, 1808.*

" Sir,—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your Royal Highness's letter of the 23rd ult., and have to entreat your Royal Highness's forgiveness for the unavoidable delay which has taken place in replying thereto. Upon the best consideration I have been able to give the communication with which your Royal Highness has been pleased to honour me, I do not feel myself enabled to enter into any explanation on the subject therein referred to, without its being previously submitted to the consideration of his Majesty's confidential servants; and, as his Majesty's commands have not been signified to authorize such a reference, I humbly conceive the subject cannot, under such circumstances, be brought regularly under their consideration.

" I am, Sir, with the utmost respect and deference,

" Your Royal Highness's

" Most humble and obedient servant,

" CASTLEREAGH."

" His Royal Highness
the Duke of Kent."

No. 3.

" *Kensington Palace, 4th May, 1808.*

" My Lord,—Having at length, last evening, been favoured with your Lordship's acknowledgment of my letter of the 23rd ult., and being unwilling to consider it in the light of a subter-

fuge or evasion, to get rid of that explanation which I feel I have a right to demand of his Majesty's confidential servants, supposing that resolution regarding me which is asserted in the Commander in Chief's letter of the 6th February last, to have been adopted by them, (of which, as I have before observed, considering the official situation of the person by whom the fact is stated, I can entertain no doubt), I have now to request that your Lordship will inform me whether I am to understand from your letter to me, that my communication to you has been laid before the King, and that his Majesty has not been pleased to signify his commands thereupon, or whether it is that your Lordship has not as yet submitted it to his Majesty's gracious consideration; for I feel it essential for my honour and character, not to let the matter rest in its present stage, and it is necessary that I should receive an explicit answer to this question from your Lordship before I decide which is the next step it may be necessary for me to take in the business.

"I remain, &c.

"EDWARD."

"The Right Honourable
Lord Castlereagh."

No. 4.

"*Downing Street, 5th May, 1808.*

"Sir,—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your Royal Highness's letter of yesterday's date, desiring to be informed whether your Royal Highness's letter of the 23rd ult. has been laid before his Majesty. I have to acquaint your Royal Highness, in reply thereto, that I have not submitted that letter to his Majesty, not having understood your Royal Highness to have expressed any wish that it should be submitted, and that I shall not feel it my duty to do so, unless I receive your Royal Highness's commands to that effect.

"I am, Sir,

"Your Royal Highness's

"Most obedient and humble Servant,

"CASTLEREAGH."

"His Royal Highness
the Duke of Kent."

No. 5.

“ Kensington Palace, 12th May, 1808.

“ My Lord,—I have to acknowledge your Lordship's letter of the 5th instant, to which I should certainly have felt it incumbent upon me to have replied earlier, had I not been desirous to weigh maturely the situation in which your Lordship's letter of the 3rd has placed me, (and which has not been altered by your last communication) before I came to any determination upon it. Having therefore now taken the necessary time to form my resolution as to the steps I ought to take thereupon, I have to observe to your Lordship that when first I addressed you on the 23d ultimo, I certainly did not conceive that it would be requisite to trouble his Majesty to interfere, in order that I might obtain from his confidential servants *that*, which is the birthright of every Englishman, I mean the opportunity of clearing myself of that unfavourable representation of my conduct while late in the command of the fortress of Gibraltar, which I conclude must have reached them, since they have felt themselves warranted in taking a step which conveys the severest possible censure upon my conduct. But since it is your Lordship's opinion that I cannot be made acquainted with those representations which have led to the adoption of the resolution alluded to, without his Majesty's command being signified to that effect, I feel too much confidence in the King's justice and goodness, to entertain a moment's hesitation as to the point of having my letter of the 23d ultimo laid before him; your Lordship will therefore understand, that it is my wish it should be submitted to him, accompanied by a humble request on my part, that he would sanction my being informed of the grounds upon which his ministers had come to the resolution alluded to by the Duke of York in his letter of the 6th February, in order that if this has arisen, as it is natural for me to imagine, from what I consider a misstatement of my conduct, I may have the opportunity given me of proving, that it is wholly unfounded. But at the same time that this communication is made to the King, I am sure your Lordship will feel that it is but just and fair it should be fully explained to him, that his being troubled with an application

of this nature has arisen solely from your Lordship's declaration, that you conceived the subject could not be brought regularly under the deliberation of his Majesty's confidential servants, until his Majesty's commands had been signified to authorize such a reference.

“ EDWARD.”

“ The Right Honourable Lord Castlereagh.”

No. 6.

“ Lord Castlereagh has the honour to acquaint his Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, that in obedience to his Royal Highness's commands, his letter of the 23d ultimo, together with the subsequent correspondence, has been laid before his Majesty.

“ *St. James's Square, 13th May, 1808.*”

(*Received by the Duke of Kent on the Evening of the 14th.*)

No. 7.

“ The Duke of Kent has to acknowledge the receipt of Lord Castlereagh's note, dated the 13th instant, (but which only reached him on the evening of the 14th) and to thank him for the information it contains of his letter of the 23d ultimo, to his Lordship, together with the subsequent correspondence that has passed between them, having been laid before the King ; at the same time the Duke has to express his expectation that Lord Castlereagh will favour him with the earliest communication of whatever commands His Majesty may be graciously pleased to signify thereupon.”

“ *Kensington Palace, 15th May, 1808.*”

“ The Right Honourable Lord Castlereagh.”

No. 8.

“ *St. James's Square, 16th May, 1808.*

“ Sir,—Having laid before the King in compliance with your Royal Highness's desire, your letter of the 23d ultimo, together with the subsequent correspondence, I am to acquaint your Royal Highness, that his Majesty referring to the answer which he was pleased to return to your Royal Highness, on the 9th February last, does not think it necessary to authorize his

ministers to take into their consideration your Royal Highness's present application.

"I am, Sir, with the utmost deference and respect,

"Your Royal Highness's

"Most humble and obedient Servant.

"CASTLEREAGH."

"For His Royal Highness
the Duke of Kent."

No. 9.

"Kensington Palace, 17th May, 1808.

"My Lord,—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your Lordship's letter of yesterday, communicating his Majesty's commands respecting the application I made to your Lordship on the 23d ultimo, to which I am fully sensible it is my duty in all humility to submit; at the same time, I cannot help expressing to your Lordship my conviction, that had the King been made *fully* acquainted with the nature and extent of it, and that it had *no reference whatever* to his Majesty's decision of the 9th February, upon the request I made to him in my letter of the 6th of the same month, (of which I never presumed to solicit a reconsideration on his part,) but that it was confined wholly to the resolution adopted by his *confidential servants*, relative to myself, (in which the King could not have had the slightest participation,) which I consider founded on injustice, as it must have been entered into upon a representation of facts to my prejudice, while I had not the opportunity afforded me of explaining my conduct as connected with the event that has occasioned that determination, he could not with his well-known upright mind have withheld from me that justice which is extended to the meanest of his subjects, *the right to defend my character against misrepresentation*.

"Under this impression, which nothing can remove from my mind, I have no alternative left, but to avail myself of the first opportunity that offers, to do justice to my feelings, and to endeavour to remove from my character that unjust stigma, which I conceive attached to it from that resolution of his Majesty's ministers, which was communicated to me by the

Commander-in-Chief in his letter of the 6th February last, and which has given rise to the present correspondence.

“ I remain, &c. &c.

“ EDWARD.”

“ The Right Honourable
Lord Castlereagh.”

It is impossible to peruse the preceding documents¹ without being struck with the ingenuous tone in which an injured and honourable man sought to remove a stigma which had foully been attached to his character; nor can feelings, stronger than mere regret, be prevented arising on witnessing the treatment to which his Royal Highness was so unworthily subjected; I close, therefore, this subject with observing, that the Duke of Kent finding all hopes of redress for the injustice done to him futile, instead of indulging in chagrin or moody discontent, bowed in humble resignation to the event, shewing that though he was born to command, he also knew how to obey: his active and benevolent mind seeing that a military career was thus early closed against him, directed its attention to fulfilling the duties of civil life: in Parliament his votes and his speeches were uniformly in favour of the great and ennobling principles which seated the family of Brunswick on the Throne of England; ‘ CIVIL AND RELIGIOUS LIBERTY;’ and out of Parliament his purse, his time, his talents, (which were of a fine order) and his winning manners were devoted to the poor; with *fifty-three public charities* his Royal Highness was intimately associated

¹ It may be necessary to state, that I received these documents from Gibraltar in 1834, and have had no communication with the relatives of the lamented prince on the subject.

—as chairman, patron, or president,—and on each and every public or private occasion he was to be found zealously ministering to the wants and afflictions of his distressed fellow subjects. His truly Christian career was cut short in the prime of life, and just when he was beginning to taste the inexpressible pleasures of domestic happiness, which no man was more capable of appreciating, and none more richly deserving of;—every Briton—every one who sympathises for the distresses of the poor and desolate—and who rejoices in the extension of national freedom and individual happiness, will have embalmed in his memory the remembrance of a Prince whose every feeling vibrated for the honour, and the glory, and the welfare of his country.

CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY AND PHYSICAL ASPECT—GIBRALTAR FORT AND TOWN—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE AND DISEASES—INVESTIGATION OF THE YELLOW FEVER EPIDEMIC, &c.—ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS—CONCHOLOGY—ICHTHYOLOGY, &c.

GIBRALTAR mountain or promontory (forming with that of Ceuta upon the opposite coast of Barbary, the narrow channel which connects the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean) is of an oblong form, in a direction from north to south two miles and three quarters, a breadth no where exceeding three-quarters

of a mile, and with a circumference of about seven miles. The greatest length of the peninsula, from Forbes's barrier to the flag-staff of Europa, is 4700 yards; the breadth, from the New Mole to the sea, at the back of the Rock, 1600 yards; from Europa Point, in the south of Gibraltar to Cabrita Point, on the Spanish side, (which two points form the mouth of the bay) 10,945 yards. The area of Gibraltar and the adjacent neutral is thus stated:—Neutral ground (including gardens, meadow and arable ground), 106 acres; North Glacis, three and a half acres; Convent grounds, two and a quarter; South Glacis, seven; Alamida and grounds to south barracks, thirty-three and three-quarters; back of south barracks to upper boundary of Commissioners' garden, eight; gardens behind the naval officers' quarters, as high as cultivation extends, twelve and three-quarters; north ditch, about one quarter; south ditto, one quarter; farms up the hill, ten; Government grounds below Europa flats, three and a quarter; parterres and gardens attached to houses within the town of Gibraltar, 10. Total 197 acres. The summit is a sharp craggy ridge, running from north to south, the greatest elevation being to the southward, where Sugar Loaf Point rises to 1439 feet above the sea level; Rock Mortar, the highest point to the northward, is 1350 feet, and Signal House, the central point between the two, has an elevation of 1276 feet.

The promontory is unequally divided by the above mentioned ridge, the side next to the Mediterranean being narrower and much steeper than that next the bay, on which stands the town and fortifications. The west side of the mountain is a series of rugged

slopes, interspersed with abrupt precipices; the east mostly consists of a range of precipices, but a bank of sand, rising from the Mediterranean in a rapid acclivity, covers one-third of its perpendicular height; the *southern* extremity of the promontory falls in a rapid slope from the Sugar Loaf summit into a rocky flat called Windmill Hill, forming half an oval, and bounded by a range of precipices, at the southern base of which a second rocky flat takes place similar in form and extent to Windmill Hill, and also like it surrounded by a precipice, the extreme southern termination of which is washed by the sea and called Europa Point. The *northern* point of Gibraltar is connected with the main land and is perfectly perpendicular, except towards the north west, where what are called the Lines intervene, and a narrow passage of flat ground that leads to the low, flat, sandy isthmus, or neutral ground, the greatest height of which above the level of the sea, does not exceed ten feet; its breadth near Gibraltar, 950 yards; about midway to the garrison, 1200 yards; and near the Spanish Lines, (which are 1650 yards from the outworks of Gibraltar) 1750 yards. The shape of this isthmus, which has Gibraltar Bay on the west and the Mediterranean Sea on the east, is irregular, the sand extending considerably beyond the Spanish Lines, both on the Mediterranean and Bay sides, so that its circumference may be estimated at eight to ten miles. Colonel James gives the following measurements and bearings of several points:

Length of the peninsula from Forbes' battery to the flag staff at Europa, 4700 yards; breadth from the new mole to the sea

at the back of the rock, 1600; distance from Forbes to the Spanish lines, 1650; the fort west of the lines, 1800; the head of the causeway to the demolished tower, 570; round tower, 870; the Spanish battery, intended to demolish the old mole, to the said work, 900; the mortar battery near the Levant shore to Queen's battery at Willis's, 535; the nearest battery of the Spaniards to the grand battery, 700; the head of the Spanish approaches to the head of the foundation, 150; the Sergeant's Guard, bay-side, to the first garden, 140; breadth of the isthmus near the Spanish lines, 1750; at the Spanish advanced huts, 1200; near Gibraltar hill, 950; the old mole-head to Europa flag-staff, south $05^{\circ} 57'$ west, 4649; the new mole-head to Europa flag-staff, south $09^{\circ} 31'$ east, 2231; the old mole-head to new mole-head, south $19^{\circ} 23'$ west, 2561.

Distances of Places across the Bay.

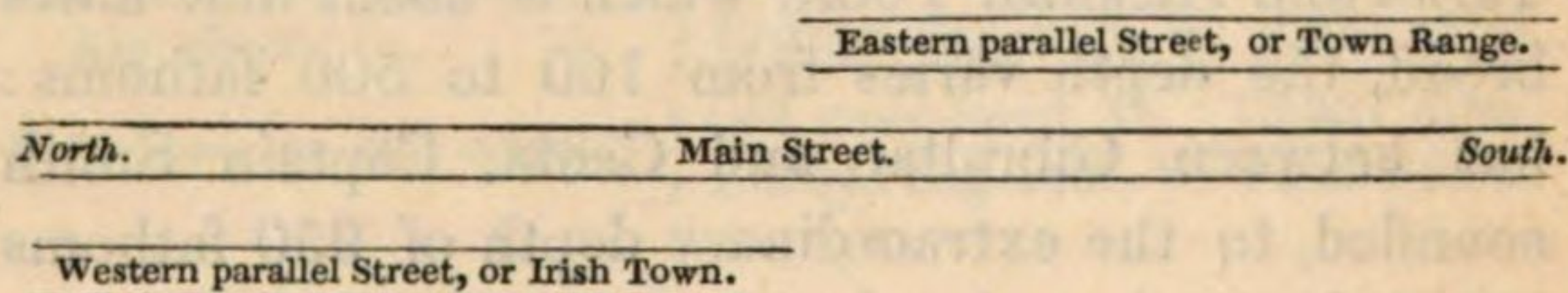
Cabrita batteries and		{ Old mole-head, W.	10,949 yards.
flag-staff		{ Europa flag-staff,	8,802 ditto.
Tower on Cabrita point		{ Old mole-head, W.	
		{ Europa flag-staff,	3,785 ditto.
Tower S. of Old Gibraltar,		{ Old mole-head,	9,246 ditto.
and N. of Sandy Bay		{ Europa flag-staff, W.	8,725 ditto.
Middle of the island of		{ Old mole-head, W.	8,275 ditto.
Algeziraz		{ Europa flag-staff, W.	8,854 ditto.
The tower in the country		{ Old mole-head, W.	10,531 ditto.
		{ Europa flag-staff, W.	12,284 ditto.

Gibraltar Bay, situate on the west side of the mountain, is nearly eight miles and a half long, and in breadth upwards of five; the circumference being between thirty to forty miles. At some points the beach is rocky, especially in front of the town; at others it is sandy, as at Rosia, in the south, and Catalan Bay, at the back of the Rock, towards its northern extremity; in spring tides the water rises in the bay about four feet, washing the base of the fortifications.

The bay is bordered on the Spanish side by ranges of high land, which form a semicircular sweep around it at the distance of three or four miles : hills of moderate height begin to present themselves above the sandy isthmus, and extend into the interior in groups of various elevations, till, at the distance of twelve leagues to the eastward, the ancient city of Ronda presents itself, and forms the centre of an extensive sierra or chain of mountains, which bears its name : a part of this sierra extends towards Malaga, and another towards Seville. The Straits of Gibraltar extend for about twelve leagues from Cape Spartel to Ceuta Point on the African coast, and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa Point on the coast of Spain. At the western or Atlantic entrance they are about eight leagues broad ; they diminish considerably towards the middle and again expand between Gibraltar and Ceuta where they are about five leagues wide. In the narrowest part of the Gut, between Tarifa and Alcanzar Point, which is about nine miles broad, the depth varies from 160 to 500 fathoms : but between Gibraltar and Ceuta, Captain Smith sounded to the extraordinary depth of 950 fathoms (5700 feet) where he found a gravelly bottom, with fragments of broken shells. Through these straits the current on the *surface* of the ocean sets constantly from the Atlantic into the Mediterranean, beneath the surface there is doubtless an under current *from* the Mediterranean into the Atlantic : this idea is confirmed from the circumstance of a Dutch merchant ship being sunk by one broadside of a French privateer in the middle of the Gut (as the straits are

termed) between Tarifa and Tangier, and a few days after, the sunken ship, with her cargo of brandy and oil, was cast ashore near to Tangier, twelve miles to the westward of the place where she went down; those who deny the existence of this counter current, and yet find a difficulty in accounting for what becomes of the vast body of water flowing constantly through the straits at a rate of from three to six miles an hour, and which no solar evaporation could carry off, suppose there may be subterranean communications between the Mediterranean and Black Sea, though the latter has a current through the Dardanelles into the former.

GIBRALTAR TOWN is built on the north west face of the promontory, extending from the Landport to the Southport Gate, the main street leading directly between the two gates, being about three-fourths of a mile in length. An idea of the three principal streets may be formed from the following diagram.



These streets and those which communicate with them, are as level as the generality of those in English towns, though the town would appear to be built on the precipitous slope of a hill. In the principal streets the houses are generally three to four stories high, built after the English model; in some parts the Spanish, or probably Moorish, construction prevails, there being a central court-yard, into which

the rooms of the dwelling open ; the roofs however are not flat or terraced as in Malta. The communication between the town and the isthmus is by a long narrow causeway, defended by a curtain with two bastions ; a dry ditch, covered way, and glacis well mined. These, together with the causeway, are completely flanked by the King's, Queen's, and Prince's lines, works cut in the rock with immense labour, and scarped so as to be almost inaccessible. Above these lines are the batteries at Willis's, still higher than which are other batteries at different heights, until the very summit is crowned with mortars and cannon, entirely commanding the isthmus below. The old mole to the west of the grand battery forms also a very formidable flank, and with the lines, a cross fire on the causeway and neutral ground. Indeed the grand battery and the old mole exhibit such a formidable appearance from the causeway as to be termed by the Spaniards "*the mouth of fire.*"

Along the sea line Gibraltar town is equally well protected, and nature has lent her aid by means of a shoal of sharp rocks, extending along the front of the fortifications far into the bay, and thus preventing ships of very large burthen from approaching close to the walls. At the new mole there is depth of water sufficient for a ship of the line to lie alongside of the wharf and heave down : the anchorage is strongly protected. From new mole Fort to Rosia Bay the works are strong, and act as flanks to each other ; they are close along the beach, which is low, and are protected by a battery in the rear. To par-

ticularize the other defences down to Europa Point and around is neither necessary nor politic.

In 1783, the total number of guns serviceable in the garrison consisted of 663 pieces of artillery, as follows :—

Cannon.—Thirty-two pounders, 77 ; 24 and 26 ditto, 149 ; 18 ditto, 113 ; 12 ditto, 74 ; 9 ditto, 16 ; 6 ditto, 31 ; 4 and 3 ditto, 61. Total, 521.

Mortars.—Thirteen inch, 29 ; 10 ditto, 3 ; 8 ditto, 13 ; 5 and 4 ditto, 65. Total, 110.

Howitzers.—Ten inch, 19 ; 8 ditto, 9 ; 5½ ditto, 4. Total, 32. Grand Total, 663.

There are now more than 1000 guns mounted.

With regard to the town of Gibraltar, though much improved of late years, it is still confined, ill ventilated, and over crowded with inhabitants ; the numbers of which have, however, been diminished by the erection of villages at Catalan Bay and on the neutral ground. As may be expected in a town subject to bombardment, the public edifices are neither numerous nor beautiful. The governor resides in a building which was formerly a Franciscan convent. and has also a delightful cottage at Europa Point. There is an English and Spanish Church, and an exchange, session-house, library, &c. The barracks are on an extensive and substantial scale, consisting of casements and detached buildings, the latter principally occupied by married people. The casements are mostly two stories, built of stone, and generally bomb proof. The hospitals are on a superior scale, particularly the naval one, which is unsurpassed in any part of the globe : it is situate on an open level

space below Buena Vista, 130 feet above the level of the sea ; it is capable of accommodating 500 patients within the walls, and 500 more might have marquees on the area or terrace in front. The remains of an old Moorish castle still exist, situate on the north-west side of the hill ; it is an extensive enclosure, of about eleven acres, within which are several houses occupied by officers and soldiers ; the walls and remains still extant denote the energy and grandeur of the Saracenic invaders of Spain.

The whole surface of Gibraltar abounds in caves, fissures, and pot-like holes. The most celebrated cave is that called St. George's by the Spaniards, and St. Michael's by the English. It lies to the south of Charles V.'s wall, at a point nearly overhanging the old burial ground in the red sands, and about 1100 feet above the level of the sea. According to tradition, it formerly extended 400 or 500 yards in a southerly direction, and at present it can be explored without difficulty 100 or 150 yards. The roof is covered with various stalactitical productions. In the interior is a large collection of water, which, although continually receiving supplies by distillation from the roof, never overflows.

The promontory is well supplied with water, and the aqueduct originally planned by the Moors is a very noble work. The present structure was commenced in 1571, after the plan of a Spanish Jesuit, and finished in 1694 : the aqueduct begins in the south, and terminates in the centre of the town ; the water with which it is supplied filters through the red sand, running through " weep holes," made of brick,

into a reservoir, from whence, after rising to a height of eighteen inches, it is conveyed in earthen pipes to various parts of the town. The aqueduct is chiefly fed by the autumn and winter rains, and also supplied by infiltration from the body of the mountain.

There are numerous tanks and wells for the supply of the garrison; those tanks, for the use of the navy, four in number, in the immediate neighbourhood of Rosia Bay, being the most extensive, as they are capable of containing 1,317,120 gallons of water; there are seven other public tanks, capable of containing 235,580 gallons; thus, *one million and a half* of gallons may be always kept in supply. The water flows into the tanks from the roofs of houses, &c. without any other purification being resorted to but throwing in a few live eels, which eat up the animalculæ, and are themselves eaten in turn when they get fat. Among the public tanks two are objects of antiquarian curiosity; one at Europa Flats, called the Nun's Well, capable of containing 100,000 gallons, is supposed to have been a Moorish bath; the other is the old Moorish Castle, and its extent does not seem to have been well ascertained, as tanks and arched passages have been recently found when sinking the foundation of officers' quarters close by the parapet in 1825. There are upwards of 100 private tanks in the garrison, capable of containing 25,000 butts of water, and from twenty to thirty wells, with a depth of three to twenty-six feet. In fact, the internal parts of the promontory abound with water; and on the neutral ground are numerous wells, which furnish some thousand gallons of water daily to the

gardens,—24,000 gallons being drawn in twenty-four hours from a sand apparently as arid as the deserts of Arabia. The wells are formed by sinking a cask in the sand, and letting in one or two more, as may be thought necessary. The supply continues throughout the driest summer, and the close vicinity of the sea does not seem to influence the quality of the water.

I am indebted to the same gentleman (Col. Drinkwater), to whose information I have already acknowledged my obligations, for the following description of a cavern explored by him and a party of adventurous brother officers,—the recital is interesting, as it tends to explain the structure of the promontory:—

“ In 1789, the attention of the garrison was much attracted to an extraordinary cavern, which was accidentally discovered at the back of the rock by the military artificers employed in scarping the accessible places. The opening of this cave was in the face of the perpendicular rock, about 150 or 160 feet above its footing on the eastern side, almost under the signal-house. In enlarging the works of the garrison, chasms and caves of considerable size were constantly thrown open in various parts of the rock, proving, with our knowledge of St. George's Cave, another at Poca Roca, above the town, and others in many parts of the mountain, that the promontory of Gibraltar must abound with hollows of this description. One had been discovered a short time before on the lines above Landport, in which some very curious petrified bones were found; but none of the late discoveries appeared to be of the same extent as the cavern above mentioned.

“ A party of officers having provided themselves with the necessary ropes, and being attended by guides, each bearing a candle, and having tinder-boxes distributed among them, proceeded by the Devil's Tower, Catalan Bay, and up the sloping bank of sand behind the rock to the foot of the precipice,

which they were required to ascend before they could enter the mouth of the cavern. This was soon found to be an enterprise of no small danger to persons unaccustomed to such undertakings. With great difficulty, the party, assisted by their attendants, clambered up the face of the rock to the height of from 150 to 160 feet. The cavern consisted of several chambers, or divisions, connected by narrow crevices or funnels, some of which were so small and tortuous as to make the passage rather difficult, obliging the party frequently to creep on all-fours for a considerable distance. In the different chambers, which appeared to be of various dimensions, were numerous stalactite columns, in all degrees of formation, the lower parts of many of them, particularly in the interior, consisted of masses of petrification in pinnacles of various heights, the outsides of which were covered with a most beautiful frothy substance, (the first stage of petrification,) which, on being rudely touched, dissolved instantly into water. The extreme cavern consisted of two divisions of an oblong form, on the floor of which lay a deep layer of dark vegetable mould¹, upon which, in various places, were seen the incipient formation of stalactite columns, a small one of which was easily removed by the writer, and with the assistance of one of the attendants, conveyed out of the cavern, but its beauty soon faded on approaching the atmosphere; and before it was lodged in his quarters it had lost much of its original snowy appearance, and was reduced to the size of the petrification of each nuclei of the different pinnacles that rose up from the base of the incipient columns.

“ Without the rope the party would neither have reached the extremity of the cavern, nor found their way back. The advance of the party into the bowels of the mountain (chiefly on a descent) was found to be about forty-four fathoms, measured

¹ How such a quantity of *vegetable mould* came to be deposited at such a depth and distance from the surface of the rock, and of course the outward atmosphere, and where no vegetable production appeared to exist, may puzzle the scientific.

on the rope ; but as this was the direct distance by the nearest angles, their line of march must have extended more than 300 feet. A great number of bats were flying about, and one or two were caught in a torpid state."

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—Gibraltar is¹ composed chiefly of a rock of grey, dense, primary marble, the beds or strata of which are of various thickness, from twenty to upwards of forty feet, dipping from east to west at an angle of nearly thirty-five degrees. Although now so far above the level of the sea, the promontory has evidently been at one time submerged beneath the ocean. Pot-like holes, as before observed, are frequently met with hollowed out of the solid rock, as if by the attrition of pebbles in a strong current ; one of these, 940 feet above the sea, was found to be five feet deep and three in diameter, the brim rounded off as if by art, and the sides and mouth retaining a considerable degree of polish. For three and a half feet downwards, the cavity was filled with an argillaceous earth, thinly mixed with minute particles of transparent quartz crystals ; the remaining foot and a half contained an aggregate of water-worn stones, from the size of a goose-egg to a walnut, and consisting of red jaspers ; yellowish white flints, white quartz, and blueish white agates firmly combined with a yellowish brown stalactitical calcareous spar : in this breccia there was no fragment of mountain rock discoverable, or any other calcareous matter, except the cement with which it was combined. The earth obtained

¹ According to Major Imrie.

from these cavities is sought by gardeners with great avidity.

Testaceous bodies¹ have occasionally been found imbedded in the body of the rock, but they do not form regular strata. Stalactites and stalagmites are to be found in great abundance in the numerous caves, especially in St Michael's. The further removed from the external air, the brighter they become in colour: near the surface they are of a brownish yellow, and by degrees shade off to a whitish yellow.

Upon the western face of the hill strata occur consisting of a number of thin beds of a blackish brown, or ferruginous-coloured earth. The lowermost strata is about a foot and a half thick, and rests upon a rock of an argillaceous nature. This stratum consists of quartz of a blackish-blue colour, in the septa or cracks of which are found fine quartz crystals, colourless and perfectly transparent. They are called "Gibraltar diamonds."

Not far from the stratum that yields the diamonds, but nearer the level of the sea, is a stratum of argillaceous matter, the septa or clefts through which are covered with dendritical figures of a yellowish-brown colour, resembling a landscape.

In some parts of the western face, towards the south, are found flints of a dirty, sap-green colour, embedded in a dark-red, shining clay.

¹ For these geological observations I am indebted to Dr. Hennen and Major Imrie.

Around Rosia Bay and the New Mole is found a beautiful breccia, composed of almost every fossil already enumerated, with the addition of two species of marble, the native beds of which have not been found in the mountain, one of them black, the other olive-green. The whole are combined by a calcareous cement of a yellowish colour, nearly approaching to orange. This breccia takes a high polish, and most houses in the garrison are supplied with beautiful chimney ornaments composed of it.

But the most curious of all the fossil productions of Gibraltar are the bones. These are found in the perpendicular fissures and cavities of the rock, imbedded in a calcareous concretion of a reddish-brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and considerably indurated. They consist of the bones of various animals, quadrupeds, and birds of different sizes, thrown together without order, and intermixed with the shells of snails, fragments of rock, and bits of spar, which are still to be observed in an uncombined state on the surface. Major Imrie's opinion is, that these substances have been swept off the surface by heavy rains, and carried into the fissures and cavities, which formerly opened to the surface, and have there undergone the action of permeating water, from which, in the course of a long series of years, calcareous matters have been deposited. In some fissures below the King's Lines he has found the concretions to consist of the pebbles of the prevailing calcareous rock, and, in one instance, the bottom of a glass bottle, of uncommon shape and great thickness, was imbedded in it. From a consideration of

all the facts, it is denied that petrification has had any share in the production of the osseous breccia. It was supposed that many of the bones were human, as skulls or parts of bones like those of man have been found; and the miners, in forming the excavations to the northward, conceived that they had fallen in with a petrified human skeleton; but the probability is, that these bones were the remains of monkeys. Cuvier, who denies the existence of human bones among these fossil remains, enumerates those of the ox, deer, sheep, rabbit, water-rat, mouse, horse, ass, snakes, and various birds. He found the bones of a ruminating animal of the order glires, which he conjectures may belong to the genus lagomys. All the shells contained in the Gibraltar conglomerate he found to be of the fresh-water or land species.

The chemical analysis of these bones, instituted by Mr. Hatchett, shows that they consist principally of the phosphate of lime, and that their cavities have been partly filled by the carbonate of lime, which agglutinates them together.

The spots where these fossil bones are found most commonly are about Rosia Bay in the south, and Prince's Lines, at the north of the rock¹.

No mineral waters have been discovered in Gibraltar. Near the base of the mountain, on which stands the tower called the "Queen of Spain's Chair," about two miles from the garrison, there are

¹ See Cuvier's Essay on the Theory of the Earth, translated by Jameson, 8vo.; Hatchett, in Philosophical Transactions, 1799; and Buckland's Reliquiæ Diluvianæ, 4to, London, 1824, p. 148.

two springs of a chalybeate nature, but the impregnation I found, on examination, to be exceedingly weak. About seven hours' journey eastward from Gibraltar are the baths of Hedionda, situated in the district of Casares, which are much resorted to by the natives in cutaneous affections, chronic rheumatism, obstinate ulcers, and affections of the kidneys and bladder, and the diseases of females. These waters abound in sulphuretted hydrogen gas: their temperature is $18\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of Reaumur. By an analysis made by Dr. Colorado of Casares, these waters are found to contain, in fifty lbs. by weight, six grains of muriate of lime, fifty-six sulphate of magnesia, thirty-five sulphate of lime, ten of magnesia, and four of siliceous earth, independent of a large quantity of sulphur, with which they so much abound, that the peasants make matches by simply dipping slips of linen in the stream. Baths and habitations have been erected at this place.

Shocks of earthquakes have been felt at Gibraltar, and many places bear the indications of volcanic agency. The great earthquake of Lisbon was first observed at Gibraltar on the forenoon of the 1st of November, 1755; it began with a trembling of half a minute, then a violent shock, and went off in trembling: the sea rose every fifteen minutes six feet eight inches, and fell so low that boats and fish were left dry. Shocks have been since felt at different periods.

The *Soil* is of several kinds; that on which the town is built is red sand, forming the largest bank of arenaceous matter on the West side of the moun-

tain : it consists of small particles of crystallized quartz, colourless, and perfectly transparent *paste*, but of an ocreous colour in the mass, on account of a red argillaceous earth adhering. On the East side the sandbank is composed of small particles of calcareous rock, the whole being of a whitish grey colour. To the South of the red-sands the soil is variegated, in some places a light, loose, fine, and extremely fertile mould, becoming, in the rainy season, of a saponaceous sliminess ; in some places a stiff marl soil and species of fullers' earth is found.

Dr. Gilkrest, the present talented and truly philanthropic Deputy-Inspector General of Hospitals at Gibraltar, has, among many other valuable documents connected with the fortress, furnished me with the following observations on this subject, which I subjoin, as illustrating that distinguished medical officer's remarks on the yellow fever and epidemics that have afflicted the garrison.

MEDICAL TOPOGRAPHY—Within this garrison it cannot be properly said that there is any marshy ground whatever : some except a small slip of low ground outside the wall, near the dock-yard, partly cultivated as a garden ; but this cannot, though low, be considered as marshy, and no ill effects have ever been experienced from it by the workmen in the dock-yard ; it seems altogether too insignificant to merit any attention whatever. The mass of the rock is composed of limestone. The soil varies at different points : that on which the upper part of the town is built is for the most part rocky. A considerable bank extends to the southward of the town, consist-

ing of a red sand mixed with argillaceous earth ; more to the southward there is light fertile mould, scattered irregularly in the fissures and depressions of the rock. Between the town and the extremity of the rock, called Europa Point, there is a cultivated line extending for about a mile at the base of the naked rock.

The length of the rock from the northern barrier to the extreme point, opposite Barbary, is 4700 yards. The breadth from the New Mole across to the Mediterranean side is 1600 yards. At its southern extremity, from the highest point, called the Sugar Loaf, (1439 feet above the level of the sea,) it is abrupt to the rocky flat called Windmill Hill, (400 feet above the sea,) where one regiment is usually quartered, and encampments are formed in epidemic years. This is terminated by precipitous rocks on all sides, below which is a second and more extensive rocky flat, (100 feet above the sea,) terminating also in precipices¹. On these flats three regiments, besides artillery and engineers, were encamped, and found safety during the epidemic of 1828. The extreme point is formed by a piece of low ground of about three acres, bounded by scarped rocks, which rise about sixty feet above the water.

This last spot is remarkable for having been chosen, in the epidemic of 1804, by Colonel Fyers, of the Royal Engineers, for his residence : he and his whole family (fourteen persons) escaped the disease.

¹ At about fifty feet above the level of the sea, and nearly due East, there is a vast mass of *bone-breccia* in the precipitous side of the rock.

The surface of the rock abounds in fissures and caves ; some of the latter of great length and depth, and affording stalactites. Breccia is found very frequently in beds between masses of limestone. A very perfect specimen of the bones of aquatic birds in a conglomerated mass was found where a party of artificers had been blasting, some years ago, by a gentleman of the dock-yard. It was found at about twenty feet below the surface.

The Area of Gibraltar, Cultivated, or admitting of Cultivation.—Within the town. Governor's ground, two acres ; small gardens, parterres, &c. in various parts of the town, eight ; farms on the side of the rock above the town¹, ten ; north glacis and ditch, three ; south glacis and ditch, six ; from town to district called ' South,' inclusive, fifty.

There are three remarkable depressions or gullies formed by the rain, and directed into the upper part of the town. In some seasons the torrents of rain down these three gullies have been so great as to cause vast damage and some loss of lives. On the last occasion (November 17th, 1834) ten lives were lost, and the quantity of earth and stones washed down into some of the upper streets reached to the height of from sixteen to eighteen feet, and in some of the lower streets to from three to ten feet.

The distance over the sandy isthmus, lying between our works and the Spanish lines, is 1650 yards :

¹ One of these farms is 680, and the other 712 feet above the level of the sea ; but neither in the late, nor in former epidemics, have their inhabitants been exempt from the yellow fever.

its width varies from 1200 to 1750 yards. Of this surface about 100 acres near the garrison are in gardens or grass land; and on this last part the troops encamp, at the discretion of the governor, as do the inhabitants, during epidemic seasons. The sandy surface is continued into Spain for a considerable way.

On the neutral ground, water, lodging after rains, is permanent throughout the year in pools only at one or two points in the purely sandy surface, near where the British territory ends, but to a very trifling extent.

The situation of our men in camp on the neutral ground, during the epidemic of 1823, was made very comfortable by the floors of their tents being paved; and the supply of tents furnished admitted of one being allotted to every four men. Iron bedsteads were also furnished.

On this isthmus, which goes under the general denomination of the Neutral Ground, the air is at all times in considerably greater motion than on the eastern and western face of the rock: and, as may be presumed, a stiff breeze is frequently felt there, when the air within the walls is only agitated moderately.

What has been said respecting the health of Gibraltar in the average of years will apply to the Neutral Ground; but seasons occur when the contrary is observed, and cases of fever of a very severe form have occasionally appeared in regiments encamped in non-epidemic years, as well as among the gardeners. Communicating with the Neutral Ground by a deep sandy road of about a quarter of a mile,

stands a military post, with a small village, inhabited by fishermen; this, though generally a healthy spot, has furnished some cases of severe fevers in particular years.

A causeway leads to the Neutral Ground from the town, on the right of which is an artificial inundation, which covers a surface of a few acres. This was anciently a morass; but many years ago it was dug two feet below the level of low water-mark, and means are constantly employed to keep it in order and free from offensive accumulations.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The foregoing brief outline of the medical topography of Gibraltar is necessary, in order to explain the climate and diseases of Gibraltar. The Andalusian atmosphere has long been celebrated for its salubrity, and, with some exceptions, of late years the climate of Gibraltar is decidedly healthy, except for hard drinkers and phlegmatic constitutions. The temperature is decidedly warm, the hottest months being June, July, August, and September; and the coldest December, January, and February. Snow rarely falls, and ice is seen no thicker than a dollar; and the mercury ranges from 85° in July, to 50° in January: but the winds and the rain affect more acutely the animal frame than the solar heat. From 1816 to 1827 the greatest height of the barometer was $30^{\circ} \frac{90}{100}$ —the lowest $28^{\circ} \frac{62}{100}$. Hail occasionally falls with much violence, and is generally accompanied by a thunder-storm, not unfrequently preceded by brilliant lightning, coruscations, and falling stars, and other meteoric phenomena are observable. In 1753, a fire-ball shot over the rock

with prodigious swiftness, in a direction from West to East, and after the space of a minute and a half exploded with a very loud report. In a period of ten years, from 1816 to 1825, the number of rainy days in each month was—January, 91; February, 71; March, 62; April, 101; May, 61; June, 18; July, 4; August, 9; September, 29; October, 57; November, 95; December, 88. Total, 686.

But although the greatest number of rainy days is shewn to have been in April, the *quantity* of rain falling is greatest in January. The heaviest rains are accompanied with south-east winds, those from the south of east being raw, black, and bleak, and termed a “genuine Levanter,” dislodging numerous masses of rock, which roll down the hill with prodigious violence, realising the Portuguese proverb—

“*Quando com Levante chove
As Pedras move.*”

Or, in doggrel English,—

“*A rainy Levanter
Makes the stones canter.*”

The Levanters are accompanied generally with thick impenetrable fogs, which roll over the rock and down its sides, depositing considerable quantities of moisture wherever they touch.

WINDS are divided into east and west; the duration of each may be seen by the following meteorological records from the books of the principal medical officer's office:—

WINDS FROM 1810 TO 1815.

In 1810, wind E. 164 days; W. 194 days; Variable, 7 days.

1811,	.	198	.	160	.	7
1812,	.	159	.	189	.	18
1813,	.	233	.	114	.	18
1814,	.	219	.	133	.	13
1815,	.	200	.	161	.	4
Total,		1173		951		67

In these six years the east exceeding the westerly by 222 days. In the subsequent ten years the proportion was—

Days.			Days.		
In 1816, wind E. 206; W. 160			In 1822, wind E. 171½; W. 193½		
1817,	.	208½	1823,	.	153
1818,	.	186	1824,	.	169
1819,	.	167½	1825,	.	184½
1820,	.	153½			
1821,	.	172	Total,		1771½
					1881½

The duration of these winds in different months for the preceding ten years, between 1816 and 1825, is thus exhibited—

Months.	Days.	Days.	Months.	Days.	Days.
Jan., wind E.	140½	W. 169½	July, wind E.	174½	W. 135½
Feb.,	140	143	August,	167½	142½
March,	153	157	Sept.	167½	132½
April,	134½	165½	October,	154	156
May,	125½	184½	Novem.,	157	143
June,	139½	160½	Decem.,	131	179

Hence, it will be observed, that the easterly winds are most prevalent in July, August, and September, and westerly in December, January, and May. It is probable, from the observations of Ayala, Mr. Carter, and others, that the easterly winds prevailed formerly more extensively than at present, and that Gibraltar, like other places, has experienced a great change of

climate¹; how far the latter and the rains affect the health of the troops in this important garrison, is a point of the utmost importance².

Memoranda relative to mortality from yellow fever at Gibraltar in five years in which it has appeared, since 1804 inclusive.

1804.—Military (including officers), 869; civilians, 4864. Total, 5733.

1810.—Military, 6; civilians, 17. Total, 23.

1813.—Military, 391; civilians, 508. Total, 889.

1814.—Military, 114; civilians, 132. Total, 246. Greatest number of deaths in September; disease began to decline from 6th October; no admissions or deaths after the 20th November.

1828.—Military, 507; civilians, 1170. Total, 1677. Greatest number of deaths on the 16th October; disease began to decline about the middle of November; last death, 14th Jan. 1829.

¹ Although the Gibraltar epidemics have not occurred in the very hottest years, and a cool wind from the north or north-east is so unfavourable to the yellow-fever epidemics as to cut them short when they occur; Humboldt makes a similar remark as regards the yellow fever at Vera Cruz. Epidemics of yellow fever have visited Gibraltar in years remarkable for the fall of much rain, as well as in those years in which but comparatively little fell. The quantity of rain which fell on different years at Gibraltar, was in inches as follows:—in 1791, 25; 1792, 44; 1793, 19; 1794, 22; 1795, 21; 1796, 25; 1797, 64; 1798, 30; 1799, 31; 1800, 42; 1801, 15; 1802, 29; 1803, 42; 1804, 50; 1805, 30; 1806, 39; 1807, 29; 1808, 33; 1809, 31; 1810, 37; 1811, 27; 1812, 40; 1813, 33; 1814, 37; 1815, 28; 1816, 28; 1817, 26; 1818, 24; 1819, 31; 1820, 36; 1821, 35; 1822, 17; 1823, 26; 1824, 20; 1825, 20; 1826, 31; 1827, 23; 1828, 25 inches.

² For Dr. Gilkrest's valuable remarks on this subject see vol. v. of my History of the British Colonies, p. 62.

For many interesting points relative to the yellow fever of Gibraltar, see article *Yellow Fever*, by Dr. Gilkrest (to whom I am indebted for the preceding facts), in the *Cyclopædia of Practical Medicine*; but I cannot refrain from giving here from the above memoir, the opinions of two members of a Commission appointed to inquire into the origin of the epidemic of 1828, demonstrating that it was not an *imported* disease.

Mr. Judge Howell.—“ Upon a careful review of all the proceedings before this Board, I am of opinion that the evidence brought forward has totally failed to prove that the late epidemic disease was introduced from any foreign source, either by the Swedish ship *Dygden*, or by any other means; and I am further of opinion that the late epidemic had its origin at Gibraltar.”

Colonel Chapman (now Major-General Sir Stephen Chapman, Governor of Bermuda).—“ Judging from the evidence produced before the Board, the manner in which it has been given, together with the description of persons who have been brought forward as witnesses, I am decidedly of opinion that the attempts to prove the introduction of the disease, after months of previous inquiry by those who wished to prove it, have totally failed.”

TABLE of the Diseases from which the greatest Mortality usually arises, showing the occurrences among the Troops at Gibraltar during four ordinary (*i. e.* not epidemic) Years.

Diseases.	1830. Strength 3688.		1831. Strength 3458.		1832. Strength 3524.		1833. Strength 3159.	
	No. Treated.	No. Died.	No. Treated.	No. Died.	No. Treated.	No. Died.	No. Treated.	No. Died.
Fevers	508	8	345	11	446	9	232	2
Dysenteric Affections	430	8	468	1	312	1	241	1
Hepatic Ditto ...	51	1	31	1	24	...	24	3
Pulmonic Ditto ...	676	24	545	19	481	18	411	24
	1665	41	1389	32	1263	28	908	30

Occurrences in regard to diseases, &c., in a regiment stationed for nine years at Gibraltar:—Arrived in the garrison, November, 1823, strength being 533; reinforcements within the period, 329; invalided or sent to England for the recovery of health, 69; average strength annually, 507; average deaths annually, $5\frac{7}{10}$.

Deaths in nine ordinary (*i. e.* not epidemic) years, in the regiment referred to:—Fevers (remittent), 3; ditto (continued), 9; inflammation of the lungs, 3;

inflammation of the bowels, 2 ; liver complaints, 3 ; phthisis, 21 ; dysentery, 6 ; other diseases and accidents, 10 ; total in nine years, 57.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Gibraltar is not the barren rock that has been supposed ; Colonel James mentions the names of 310 different trees and plants growing on the promontory. Several kinds of fruits are cultivated, and the vine and fig flourish in exuberance ; after rains vegetation is richly luxuriant. The olive, almond, orange, lemon, and indeed every tree planted in a proper spot, thrive on Gibraltar ; in the naval garden in the south are some noble date trees ; the prickly pear runs wild, the aloe abounds, and the palmetto was formerly plentiful. Geraniums of almost every species grow in the utmost profusion, and a great variety of wild and cultivated plants and herbs are found in every part of the mountain. Among the *native* fruits brought to market are seven or eight kinds of grapes, figs, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, apples, peaches, plums, apricots, (vulgo "*Kill Johns*") cherries, strawberries, &c., and potatoes, cabbages, onions, cucumbers, artichokes, tomatoes, peas, kidney beans, spinage, lettuces, radishes, &c. &c., are produced in abundance. During the latter part of the last siege, the quantity of vegetables grown was sufficient for the supply of the garrison, and the quantity of garden ground is now augmented.

ICHTHYOLOGY.—The different kinds of fishes observed at the market at Gibraltar may be thus classified ; the list is not pretended to be complete : in former times the bay was so celebrated for its fishing

of *tunny* and salmonettas that coins were struck in which these fish are represented.

Order 1. Apodal., ventral fins, none.

No of Genus.	Generic Names.	Specific Names.	English Names.
1	Muraena . .	Helena . .	Roman Eel.
...	Ditto . .	Ophis . .	Spotted Sea Serpent.
...	Ditto . .	Serpens . .	Serpent Eel.
...	Ditto . .	Anguilla . .	Common Eel.
...	Ditto . .	Mytus . .	Flat-tailed Sea Serpent.
...	Ditto . .	Conger . .	Conger Eel.
2	Gymnotus . .	Acus . .	Needle G.
3	Gymnothorax . .	Caeca . .	Blind G.
7	Ophidium . .	Barbatum . .	Bearded Oph.
...	Ditto . .	Imberbe . .	Beardless Oph.
9	Xiphias . .	Gladius . .	European Sword Fish.

Order 2. Jugular, ventral fins before jugular.

13	Callionymus . .	Lyra . .	Gemmeous Dragonet.
14	Uranoscopus . .	Scaber . .	
15	Trachinus . .	Draco . .	Sting Bull.
16	Gadus . .	Minutus . .	Poor Cod Fish.
...	Ditto . .	Blennoides . .	
...	Ditto . .	Merluccius . .	Hake.
...	Ditto . .	Albidus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Mustela . .	Five-bearded Cod.
...	Ditto . .	Tricirratu . .	Three-bearded Do.
...	Ditto . .	Mediterranicus . .	
17	Blennius . .	Ocellaris . .	Ocellate Blenny.
...	Ditto . .	Gattorugine . .	
...	Ditto . .	Teutacularis . .	
...	Ditto . .	Phycis . .	Forked Hake.
...	Ditto . .	Pholis . .	Smooth Blenny.

Order 3. Thoracic, ventral fins under jugular.

19	Cepola . .	Taenia . .	
...	Ditto . .	Rubescens . .	
20	Echineis . .	Remora . .	Sucking Fish.
21	Coryphaena . .	Hippuris . .	
22	Gobius . .	Niger . .	Black Goby.
...	Ditto . .	Bicolor . .	Two-coloured Goby.
...	Ditto . .	Cruentatus . .	Blood-spotted Goby.
...	Ditto . .	Paganellus . .	
23	Cottus . .	Gobio . .	Miller's Thumb.
...	Ditto . .	Massiliensis . .	

Order 3.—*continued.*

No. of Genus.	Generic Name.	Specific Names.	English Names.
24	Scorpaena . .	Porcus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Scrofa . .	
25	Zeus . .	Faber . .	John Dorée.
26	Pleuronectes . .	Solea . .	Sole.
...	Ditto . .	Maximus . .	Turbot.
28	Sparus . .	Auratus . .	Lunulated Gilt Head.
...	Ditto . .	Maena . .	
...	Ditto . .	Pagrus . .	Red Gilt Head
...	Ditto . .	Spinifer . .	
...	Ditto . .	Salpa . .	
30	Labrus . .	Pavo . .	
...	Ditto . .	Julis . .	
...	Ditto . .	Tinca . .	Wrasse, Old Wife.
...	Ditto . .	Ballan . .	Ballan Wrasse.
...	Ditto . .	Bimaculatus . .	Bimaculated W.
...	Ditto . .	Viridis . .	
...	Ditto . .	Livens . .	
...	Ditto . .	Gibbus . .	Gibbous W.
...	Ditto . .	Olivaceus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Fuscus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Unimaculatus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Venosus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Griseus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Guttatus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Varius . .	
30	Labrus . .	Cynaedus . .	
32	Perca . .	Labrax . .	Basse.
...	Ditto . .	Pusilla . .	
...	Ditto . .	Mediterranea . .	
...	Ditto . .	Gigas . .	
34	Gasterosteus . .	Ductor . .	Pilot Fish
35	Scomber . .	Scomber . .	Common Mackerel.
...	Ditto . .	Thynnus . .	Thunny.
...	Ditto . .	Trachurus . .	Horse Mackerel.
37	Mullus . .	Barbatus . .	Red Surmullet.
...	Ditto . .	Surmuletus . .	Striped S.
38	Triglia . .	Hirundo . .	Tub, or Sapphine.
...	Ditto . .	Cuculus . .	Red Gurnard.
...	Ditto . .	Cataphractus . .	
...	Ditto . .	Lyra . .	Piper.
...	Ditto . .	Gurnadus . .	Grey Gurnard.

Order 4. Abdominal, ventral fins behind jugular.

49	Argentina . .	Sphyraena . .	European Arg.
50	Atherina . .	Hespetus . .	Atherina.
51	Mugil . .	Cephalus . .	Mullet.
52	Exocaetus . .	Evolans . .	Flying Fish.
54	Clupea . .	Alosa . .	Shad.
...	Ditto . .	Encrasicolus . .	Anchovy.

Order 5. Branchiostegous, gills destitute of bony rays.

No. of Genus.	Generic Names.	Specific Names.	English Names.
58	Tetrodon . .	Mala .	Short Sun Fish.
60	Syngnathus . .	Acus .	Needle Fish.
...	Ditto . .	Ophidion .	Little Pipe Fish.
...	Ditto . .	Hippocampus .	
65	Lophius . .	Piscatorius .	Angler Frog Fish.
Order 6. Chondropterygious, gills cartilaginous.			
66	Accipenser . .	Sturio . .	Sturgeon.
68	Squalus . .	Canicula . .	Spotted Dog Fish.
...	Ditto . .	Catulus . .	Lesser Spotted Do.
...	Ditto . .	Zygaena . .	
...	Ditto . .	Vulpes . .	Sea Fox.
70	Raia . .	Torpedo . .	Electric Ray.
...	Ditto . .	Oxyrinchus .	Sharp-nosed R.
...	Ditto . .	Miraletus .	
...	Ditto . .	Rubus . .	Rough Ray.

Considerable quantities of the tunny are caught at the present day, both for immediate food, and for exportation, dried, salted, or preserved in oil. The bonito, mackerel, and anchovy, are taken in great numbers, the latter in particular forming a valuable export to the Genoa market. The *Muraena Helena*, so prized by the ancient Romans, that we are told Crassus went into mourning for the death of a favourite one, is here within reach of the poorest individual, and being considered a coarse fish, it is not much esteemed. The sepia, or cuttle fish, which is very abundant, forms a delicious article of diet when well washed, deprived of its bone, and properly cooked. The sword-fish is frequently brought to market, and the Gibraltar eels are much prized.

The *Simple Shells*—consisting only of one single shell, and having no hinge, are not very abundant.

1. *Patella*.—The striated limpit, the starry limpit, the beaked limpit; besides these, there are several of the patellas, some of which are very beautiful.

2. *Heliotis*.—The great ear shell; the long ear shell.

3. *Dentalium*.—The striated tooth shell.

4. *Nautilus*.—The paper nautilus.

5. *Cochleæ*, Snails.—The echinated cochlea; the wide mouthed snail; the toothed nerite snail; the cornu ammonis snail; the rough trochus; the mitre shell; the tower of Babel shell; the rough-mouthed buccinum; the needles shell; the vice admiral; the admiral; the tyger shell.

6. *Minices*.—The spider shell, and some others of the muret.

7. *Purpuma*.—The thorny woodcock shell; the common woodcock shell; the caltrop shell; and some others of the purpuma.

8. *Dolium*.—The mulberry shell; the white-mouthed yellow dolium; the thin gondola shell.

9. *Porcellana*.—The boat porcellana; the pointed-headed porcellana, and some others.

Bivalves, or such as have the external covering or shell composed of two parts or valves.

10. *Ostrea*.—Large rock oysters; the great prickly oyster.

11. *Chama*.—The Arabian shell; the old woman shell, or wrinkled chama; the zigzag chama.

12. *Mitulus*.—The coated muscle; the pinna marina, and other of the mituli.

13. *Cardia*.—The ox heart cockle ; the Noah's ark heart shell ; the rough or heart shell ; and some others of the *cardia*.

14. *Pecten*.—The red and white scallop ; the coral scallop, the yellow scallop ; the ducal mantle scallop ; the thin scallop, and others of the *pectines*.

15. *Solenes*.—The thick razor shell ; the blueish crooked razor shell.

Multivalves.—Having the outer covering or shell composed of more than two pieces or valves.

16. *Balanus*.—The narrow-mouthed grey balanus ; the great wide-mouthed balanus.

17. *Polliceps*.—The blueish polliceps ; the goose shell.

18. *Centronia*.—The common round sea egg ; the blue roundish sea egg ; the high-backed sea egg ; the sea apple, and some others.

ENTOMOLOGY.—As in other warm climates, the insect tribes are numerous, and the mosquitoes in summer are particularly annoying to new comers. The *lepidoptera*, or caterpillar tribe, are prolific ; grasshoppers overrun the neutral ground, and a southerly wind in 1753 brought from Africa an immense swarm of huge locusts, with brown spotted wings, red legs, and bright yellow bodies, which, fortunately for the garrison, a sudden change of wind to the east beat into the sea, where they were washed ashore in heaps. On another occasion a swarm of butterflies made their appearance in a similar manner. The moths are large and very beautiful. The domestic annoyances are plentiful.

ANIMALS—Do not differ from those of the Andalusian provinces, with the exception of monkeys, several families of which have located themselves on the rock; they are probably an importation from Barbary, but they are so extremely wary that it is quite impossible to get near them, and a skeleton has scarcely ever been found.

Foxes formerly abounded, and a pack of hounds was kept by some of the merchants; hares and rabbits, wild cats, rats, and mice, are prolific. Large flocks of goats browse over the rocks, and their milk and flesh is excellent. Horses, mules, and asses, are imported from Spain at a moderate price.

Birds are similar to those on the peninsula; eagles, hawks, and kites, build their airy nests in the rocky summits, and are at all times seen hovering about in quest of prey; bats, (*vespertilio marinus*), and owls, swarm in the caves; and pigeons (wild and tame), poultry, geese, ducks, and red-legged partridges, larks, starlings, thrushes, blackbirds, finches, &c. &c. abound.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION—MILITARY STRENGTH—COMMISSARIAT, &c.

It is more than probable that while in the early possession of the Moors Gibraltar was thickly peopled by that enterprising nation.

The earliest census I have been enabled to obtain is thus given by Colonel James. A list of constant inhabitants, taken March 20th, 1753 :—

Those of great Britain. Number of men, women, boys, and girls, 331 ; Navy and Victualling Office, 83 ; Genoa, 597 ; Spain, 185 ; Portugal, 25 ; Jews, 572 ; total, 1793.

The next census was taken the 28th September, 1754 :—

Roman Catholics:—men, 250 ; women, 112 ; boys, 135 ; girls, 295. Jews, 604 ; British, I have not heard there was any account taken ; suppose the same as in the year 1753, 414 ; total, 1810.

The total number of military, supposing the four regiments complete, 2800 ; Artillery, 107 ; Officers, military and civil, to complete the four regiments, 182 ; number of women, military, and children, 1426 ; total number of Britons, civil, 414 ; military, 4452 ; total, 4866.

The number of Catholics short of the Protestants, 4074 ; the number of souls of all sects in the garrison, 6260.

The census of the civil population since 1754 is thus stated :—1791, mouths, 2885 ; 1801, 5339 ; 1807, 7501 ; 1811, 11,173 ; 1813, 12,423 ; 1814¹, 10,136 ; 1816, 11,401 ; 1817, 10,737.

¹ Diminished in November, 1813, to 7370 individuals, owing to the voluntary removal or forcible expulsion of many individuals and by the ravages of the epidemic.

A Colonial Office manuscript furnishes the following statement.

Years.	White and Coloured Free People.		Persons employed.		Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.	Agriculture.	Commerce.			
1825	8240	7240	—	—	685	78	332
1826	8193	7248	—	—	852	77	550
1827	8480	7914	110	317	732	56	1600
1828	8480	7914	93	307	622	85	384
1829	8752	8272	—	—	529	74	332
1830	8752	8272	113	1095	535	89	362
1834	7419	7589					

The following return is to January, 1835.

Civil Population of Gibraltar and Territory.

	No. of Houses or Dwellings.	Number of Persons.	Total Population.
Within the Walls of the Town	1384	12622	15008
On the Southern part of the Rock	330	1718	
On North Front outside the Gates, and the Fishing Village at Catalan Bay, at the foot of the Eastern side of the Rock	67	368	
Living in Government Quarters	...	300	
Total.....	1781		

The foregoing population consists of males, 7419 ; females, 7589 ; total, 15,008. Of whom 10,122 are natives and British subjects, and 4886 resident aliens.

The resident aliens are composed of the following nations :—

Nation.	Males.		Females.		Total of each Nation.	Occupations of the Inhabitants.
	Above 12 years of age.	Under 12 years of Age.	Above 12 years of age.	Under 12 years of age.		
British Subjects	402	33	406	33	874	160 Merchants ; 226 Shopkeepers; 303 Clerks; 48
Native Christians	1893	1901	2245	1937	7976	Landed Proprietors; 4 Lawyers and Notary Publics; 24
Native Jews	395	183	484	210	1272	Doctors and Apothecaries;
Barbary Jews ...	315	...	37	1	353	99 in Government Civil Service; 19 in Religious Establishments; 25 Brokers; 309
Brazilians	8	...	7	...	15	Hawkers and Dealers; 1042
French	40	...	21	1	62	Tradesmen and Mechanics;
Dutch	2	...	...	...	2	43 Wine and Spirit Dealers;
Germans	21	...	2	...	23	267 Gardeners, Brokers,
Genoese	736	8	367	5	1116	Butchers, Fruit and Milk
Greeks	5	...	...	...	5	Sellers; 880 Tobacconists
Ionian Islands ...	6	...	...	...	6	and Cigar Makers; 408 Ma-
Italians	120	...	19	...	139	riners, Boatmen, Lighter-
Moors	13	2	1	...	16	men, and Fishermen; 646
Portuguese	414	4	251	5	674	Porters, Labourers, Carters,
Prussians	1	...	...	...	1	Coachmen, and Water-Car-
Spaniards	878	32	1520	30	2460	riers; 2473 Servants, Laun-
South Americans	3	...	5	...	8	dressess, and Seamstresses;
Swedes	1	...	...	...	1	364 Miscellaneous. The fol-
Swiss	...	...	1	...	1	lowing are without employ-
Turks... ..	1	...	...	...	1	ment or assisting in domestic
Citizens of the United States...	2	...	1	...	3	affairs—625 Men; 1985 Boys;
Total	5256	2163	5367	2222	15008	2957 Women; 2101 Girls.— Total 15008.

The statistical returns of the Board of Trade state the population of Gibraltar in 1831 thus:—

Area in Square Miles.	Whites.		Blacks.		Total.		Aliens and Resident Strangers.	Proportion to Square Mile.	Persons employed in		Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			Agriculture.	Commerce.			
12 $\frac{2}{3}$	8741	8268	11	4	8752	8272	6908	10214	113	1095	456	65	367

A number of aliens were, on a revision of permits, warned to leave the garrison in 1832.

Military Establishment of Gibraltar.—Major- General, Aide-de-camp, Colonel of Engineers, Assistant Military Secretary, Town Major, Town Adjutant, Garrison Quarter Master, Garrison Chaplain, Provost Marshal; 1 Company of Sappers and Miners, 5 Companies of Royal Artillery; 5 Regiments of the line at present, but subject to variation. *Six* is the regular peace establishment at the present strength of regiments.

The following table shows the military strength of the garrison for the last eighteen years:—

Return of the numbers and distribution of the effective force, Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers, and Rank and File of the British Army at Gibraltar, in each year since 1815, including Artillery and Engineers.

Years.	Officers present, or on detached duty at the Station.											Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
	Colonels.	Lt. Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Qr. Masters.	Surgeons.	Assistant Surgeons.			
1816	1	2	4	33	57	21	2	4	3	3	10	193	91	2967
1817	1	2	6	35	71	28	4	4	4	4	6	229	91	3826
1818	...	3	6	34	51	20	4	4	4	2	6	199	86	3392
1819	1	4	6	40	43	25	3	3	3	3	6	176	81	3344
1820	1	5	5	32	38	24	4	4	5	4	4	142	81	2869
1821	1	4	6	27	34	27	4	4	5	5	4	130	86	2632
1822	1	5	5	27	41	19	3	4	3	4	3	125	50	2604
1823	1	5	3	24	44	17	3	4	4	3	5	119	50	2533
1824	1	4	7	30	43	19	4	3	4	5	3	123	48	2542
1825	1	3	8	32	44	24	5	4	5	5	3	149	60	2987
1826	1	7	4	37	49	19	4	6	6	5	4	191	69	3352
1827	1	7	5	32	47	19	3	5	5	5	6	169	60	2982*
1828	1	6	5	37	43	14	4	5	5	4	7	172	62	2929*
1829	1	6	6	48	53	24	4	5	6	6	12	199	69	3519
1830	1	8	4	40	47	23	5	4	5	5	8	196	70	3531
1831	1	7	5	35	39	24	5	4	5	7	9	196	66	3310
1832	1	8	2	35	40	18	5	6	6	7	6	186	68	3105
1833	1	5	4	32	41	17	5	4	6	5	7	194	69	3188

* Exclusive of two regiments detached to Lisbon, and including one from Malta.

Commissariat Department.—Deputy Commissary General; one Assistant ditto; three Deputy ditto.

Medical Department.—Deputy General Inspector of Hospitals; one Deputy Purveyor; five Assistant Staff Surgeons, who have, in addition to other duties, especial surveillance of the state of health of the civil poor in the different districts into which the garrison and territory are divided.

Storekeeper's Department.—Storekeeper; Deputy ditto; five Clerks. N. B. This Deputy is in charge of Gunners', naval stores, as well as of military stores.

Barrack Department.—Two Barrack Masters, having in charge six excellent barracks for the accommodation of the regiments of the line.

Police Establishment.—Police Magistrate; Director of Police, who is also a Coroner; Fourteen Police Officers, for the different districts and posts of the garrison and territory.

Port Establishment for the jurisdiction of the Bay Quarantine Duties.—Captain of the Port; Lieutenant of the Port; Midshipman of the Port. The two latter residing in the guard boat.

There is much poverty among the poorer classes at Gibraltar, especially among the aliens; the lower order of Moors and Jews have a filthy appearance: they wear a sort of frock composed of flimsy blanketting, with a hood and sleeves for wet weather; loose cotton drawers, open at the knees, the legs bare, the feet in clumsy slippers, and skull-cap of greasy wollen; this garb is frequently worn night and day until it drops to pieces. Provisions, such as beef, mutton, lamb, &c. procured from Spain or Barbary, are good, but rather high priced; fish is plentiful, but the chief dish of the lower orders is called *gespacho*, and is composed of water, vinegar, oil, capsicums, garlic and salt, into which bread is broken: all the family sit round the bowl, each person helping himself with a wooden spoon. The usual beverage is Spanish wine, from Malaga and Catalonia.

Market Prices of Provisions in January, 1835.	Gibraltar.	Malta.	Corfu.
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Beef, per lb.	0 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 4	0 3
Mutton, do.	0 7	0 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Veal, do.	0 9	0 6	0 6
Turkey	5 0	6 0	6 0
Fowl	1 6	1 5	1 8
Eggs, the dozen	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 4	0 6
Bread, 1st quality, per lb.	0 2 $\frac{1}{4}$	0 1 $\frac{1}{4}$	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto 2nd ditto.	0 2	0 1 $\frac{1}{8}$	0 1
Wine, common, per pint	0 2	0 1 $\frac{1}{8}$	0 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Oil, ditto	0 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	0 6 $\frac{1}{4}$	0 5
Firewood, the 1000 lbs.	6 6	9 7	6 0
Expense of washing a dozen pieces	3 3	1 0	1 6

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT, &c.

THE chief administration lies in the Governor, who is of course the commander-in-chief of the troops; and the settlement is treated as a garrison town. The laws of England are generally applied at Gibraltar, and the Charter of Justice of 1830 provides that the courts shall administer the law as nearly as may be according to the practice of Westminster Hall.

The following detail of functionaries will help to explain the establishments which exist.

Law Courts of Gibraltar.—*Supreme Court.*—The Judge, Attorney General, Master Registrar and Clerk of arraigns (those offices are in one person); Clerk, Marshal, Deputy Marshal.

Court of Vice Admiralty.—The Governor, Deputy

Governor, Commissary and Judge, Registrar, King's Advocate and Proctor, Advocate and Proctor of the Admiralty, Marshal, Deputy Marshal.

Court of Requests for the Recovery of Small Debts.—Commissioner (Police Magistrate), Registrar, Marshal and Interpreter.

Court of Quarter Sessions for Petty Offences.—Justice of the Peace (the Police Magistrate), Clerk of Arraignment, Interpreter and Crier.

A Collector of Revenues, an Inspector of Revenues, an Auditor of Revenue Accounts.

Pratique Office.—At which Port Charges are received, three Clerks.

Naval Establishment.—One Clerk, in Charge of Dockyard, Victualling Stores, and Naval Tanks, calculated to hold 1,017,120 gallons of water.

Quarantine Board.—Lieutenant-Governor, Civil Secretary, the Captain of the Port, the Police Magistrate, the Inspector of Health, Secretary.

Town Board of Health.—The Police Magistrate, and eleven other Gentlemen (civil and military), to concert measures for the prevention of nuisances, &c. &c.

Gibraltar Civil Hospital.—An establishment for the reception alike of the sick poor of different persuasions; from its *general funds*, hospital accommodation and equipment, medical attendance, and medicines are supplied; but as the general funds are not sufficient for the *support* of the patients, each particular religious persuasion is at the expence of dieting its own sick whilst in hospital, by subscriptions raised among themselves.

The building, formerly called “The Blue Barracks”

(previously in a state of ruin), having been appropriated and fitted up at the expence of Government, was given over for occupation as a civil hospital in 1815. Since that period, however, such considerable sums of money from local, public (i. e. contributions and port charges), and also from private sources, have been expended in large additions of building improvements, and in completing the establishment to its present extended state of usefulness and perfection, as to render it at this moment an inseparable amalgam of original government and civil property. In its present state it is capable of containing eighty patients.

The dieting and washing of the patients, servants, funerals, &c. are paid for by annual subscriptions and donations raised by the three predominant persuasions among themselves, each defraying that of its own class and number of sick.

Example. The total expence of the hospital for diets, washing, servants, funerals, and other contingencies last year, was—3493 *dollars*, 6 *reals*, 12 *quarters*—viz.

Paid by the Protestant Division, 984 *dol.* 1 *rs.* 4 *qu.*; by the Catholic Division, 2509 *dol.* 5 *rs.* 8 *qu.*; total, 3493 *dol.* 6 *rs.* 12 *qu.* And the average daily expense of each patient for the above was 3 reals and 12 quarters currency, or one shilling and fourpence farthing, the exchange being at 52_a.

The number of patients who received aid during the years 1833 and 1834 at the civil hospital at Gibraltar :—

1833. In patients, 274; viz. Protestants, 79; Catholics, 176; Hebrew and Mahometan, 19; total 274.

Out Patients, 7098; viz. Protestant 202; Catholics, 6496; Hebrew and Mahometan, 400; 7098.

1834. In Patients, 477; viz. Protestants, 114; Catholics, 336; Hebrew and Mahometan, 27; total, 477.

Out Patients, 6109; viz. Protestants, 369; Catholics, 5330; Hebrew and Mahometan, 410; total, 6109.

Places of Worship.—A spacious Protestant Church has been erected within the last few years, and a Protestant Chapel, in the building called the Convent, the residence of the Governor or Lieutenant Governor,—also a Roman Catholic Church within the walls of the town, and a small Roman Catholic Chapel in the district called ‘The South;’ the clergymen being usually Genoese. There are four Jewish Synagogues.

Of *Public Schools* there is one small garrison school, and there are regimental schools in each of the corps stationed in the fortress; the numbers attending being 176 males, and 138 females; total, 314. A school for children of different persuasions; the number in 1835 being about 1200.

As to the *Press* there is little to say further than that a government newspaper exists.

The public library at Gibraltar is one of the finest in Europe; the patriotic Colonel Drinkwater may be considered its founder in 1793. The medical library, as also that founded by the merchants, are of more

recent origin, but fast augmenting, particularly the former.

The POLICE of Gibraltar owes its present existence, exclusively to his Excellency Sir George Don¹. Previous to the year 1814, the garrison was infamous for its filth; without sufficient common sewers, without an efficient scavenging department, without pavements on proper principles; in short, it had obtained the bad pre-eminence of being the dirtiest garrison under the British Crown. On landing at the New Mole, the first objects that struck the eye, were certain enclosures marked "Depôt," in which all the filth of the neighbourhood was stored up to be removed at leisure. The fœtor from these collections was offensive in the extreme; the effluvia which arose from them were diffused all around, and they were placed so close to each other, as to keep up a chain of putrescent exhalations, which tainted the whole atmosphere.

The work of reformation soon commenced,—the depôts were emptied into the sea, and the necessary measures were taken for constructing common sewers through the principal streets. From the rocky nature of the ground, in most situations, this was a work of considerable labour and expense, but by judicious plans and patient perseverance, it was accomplished in a most effectual manner; many thousand running feet of new drains have been constructed,

¹ Dr. Hennen, to whom I am indebted for these observations, pays a just tribute to the exertion of this active Lieutenant Governor.

and minor ones in communication with the main trunks.

The town-major is director of police, with a suitable proportion of town serjeants, &c. &c., and there are two sub-directors outside the garrison—officers in military charge of Catalan Bay, and the villages and buildings on the neutral ground and north front, whose duty it is, as much as possible, to regulate the health concerns of the mixed population which form the mass of the inhabitants of these places.

There is a regular scavenging department, which not only attends the town, but every part of the garrison and neutral ground, whence the animal matter is conveyed, divided from the other rubbish, and buried on the eastern extremity of the beach. This branch is under the superintendence of the garrison quarter master.

By the police regulations all householders, principal inhabitants, and occupiers of separate buildings, stores, or warehouses, are to be provided at all times, at their several premises, with a strong tub or cask, for receiving the dirt and filth which may accumulate in the course of the twenty-four hours, to be in readiness for the carts of the scavenging department to remove the contents daily.

Dirty water, dust, dead animal and vegetable matter, or filth of any description, is forbidden to be thrown out of the windows or doors, or to be placed in the streets, passages, or gutters, under a penalty.

The butcheries and markets are under excellent regulations. No cattle are permitted to be slaughtered in any other place than the *zoca* or butchery on

the neutral ground, (with the exception of calves, under particular restrictions.) The hours of slaughtering are limited to between three o'clock P.M. and sun-set; and the meat is not allowed to be brought into the garrison before the next morning; so that abundant time is given it to cool and to be thoroughly cleansed; the time for conveying it into the garrison is limited to two hours after sun-rise. The cleansed offal—as head, heart, suet and tallow, is permitted to be brought into the garrison in the evening that the animal is killed, for the purpose of immediate sale, but no garbage of any description is admitted at any time. In the neighbourhood of the *zoca*, sheds for several hundred head of cattle¹ are erected. Their food consists of about ten pounds of chopped straw, four of beans bruised, and a proportion of barley per diem, with water once a-day *ad libitum*.

The meat is conveyed in covered carts, crates, or baskets, and the filthy practice of blowing by the mouth is forbidden. With regard to the place of sale, the regulations are equally judicious;—no unwholesome or tainted meat is permitted to be sold; no live cattle of any description are permitted to enter the market; nor are hides, wool, or lumber allowed to remain in the stalls. No beds are permitted within the market-place. All the stalls are washed every

¹ The cattle for the troops are chiefly procured from Barbary, under a treaty by which 2000 head are annually permitted to be exported from that country, for the use of the garrison: whatever surplus remains after supply of the troops, is sold by the contractor for his own benefit. The breed is very small, but they fatten rapidly.

evening throughout the year, and no individuals are allowed to remain in them at night. They are white-washed twice a month. The cleanliness and regularity of the slaughter-houses, cattle-stalls, &c. is a branch of the police under the town-adjutant. The stalls are let out, and the product forms part of an orphan fund.

The practice of erecting stalls and benches in the public streets, for the sale of goods, is entirely prohibited. Temporary benches are permitted to be placed in certain situations during the early part of the day, for general convenience.

Taverns, wine-houses, and eating-houses are placed under strict regulations. The admission and lodging of strangers is directed to be attended to in the most rigid manner, and the whole are placed under the immediate surveillance of the police.

The burial-places of Gibraltar were suspected of being very efficient agents in the production of the epidemic of 1813¹. The smell issuing from the principal one is described by Dr. Robertson as having been extremely offensive, and he expresses his astonishment that with such a source of fever existing within it, the garrison was ever free from that disease. The old burial-ground in South Port Ditch was suspected of similar ill effects. Whether these suspicions were well or ill founded, the main causes of complaint have been removed, and the principal burying-ground is now on the neutral ground. Charnel-house effluvia occasionally arise from it, and in some instances water

¹ See *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, vol. v. p. 311; and *London Medical Repository*, vol. i. p. 369.

has flowed into the graves, which might have afforded similar exhalations on evaporation, but the perpetual current of air, the grand neutralizer of all insalubrious miasmata, renders them innocuous to the inhabitants of the town.

The Red Sands, between the Grand Parade and the South Pavilion, was formerly the principal receptacle for the dead. The greater part of these sands is now converted into gardens, and only a very small spot remains, which is occasionally used for officers. The Jews, also, have a burial-ground on Windmill Hill, in a very airy and elevated situation. An old burial-ground, now no longer used, is situated on the side of the hill, above the Red Sands, and another of a similar description lies within South Port. Upon the whole, the places of sepulture for Gibraltar afford little cause for suspicion at present. The depositing of bodies within the Spanish church, which was so common a practice fifty years ago, that Colonel James says, "all the Roman Catholics were buried there," is now discontinued. Nothing but the quantity of lime thrown over the bodies could have prevented the most dangerous consequences resulting from this practice. It is now so rare to deposit a body in the church, that a thousand dollars were lately paid by the family of a Spanish gentleman for permission to do so.

The streets of Gibraltar, which were formerly in a most deplorable state, are now well paved, lighted, and cleansed, and extensive improvements are daily going on. Many of the narrow streets have been

widened, several alleys entirely removed, and free ventilation promoted by all possible means.

REVENUE. The gross revenue collected in the garrison for several recent years was, so far as I can ascertain,--

1821, 29,044*l.*; 1823, 32,410*l.*; 1825, 44,381*l.*; 1826, 45,786*l.*; 1827, 42,511*l.*; 1828, 39,862*l.*; 1829, 34,460*l.*; 1830, 30,841*l.*; 1831, 29,594*l.*; 1832, 32,703*l.*; 1833, 32,982*l.*; 1834, 30,694*l.*;

The mode in which this revenue is raised is thus stated in the report of the Colonial Committee of Inquiry, in 1830.

Duty on wines, 4648*l.*; license fees, 742*l.*; commutation license fees, 117*l.*; wharfage fees on all wines landed, 263*l.*; duty on spirits, 8715*l.*; rent of tavern licenses, 1976*l.*; ditto of wine-house licenses, 3587; licenses for retail wine and spirit stores, 158*l.*; ditto for billiard-tables, 269*l.*; licenses for eating-houses, 8*l.*; auction fees, 1924*l.*; ground rents, and rents for King's houses, 4110*l.*; pratique fees, 2661*l.*; secretary's fees, 2445*l.*; court fees, 1609*l.*; fees on permits from town major's office, 526*l.*; registration fees, 299*l.*; one moiety of seizures, 2*l.*; rent of market stalls, 193*l.*; sale of unserviceable revenue materials, 198*l.* Total (exclusive of shillings), 34,460*l.*

Of course the colonial revenues of this settlement are not adequate to its expenses as a military post and maritime station¹. The funds contributed by

¹ See my "Colonial Policy of the British Empire," part I., published by Allen & Co., for comments on this circumstance.

Great Britain are thus stated by the Colonial Revenue Committee, in 1829 (shillings excluded), ordnance, 47,480*l.*; general staff, 985*l.*; garrison staff, 1869*l.*; medical ditto, 1327*l.*; troops' service, companies of six regiments, 105,754*l.*; commissariat, 70,083*l.* (8600*l.* was extraordinary on account of fever); supplies for commissariat, 2237*l.*; medical stores, 237*l.*; stationary, 584*l.*; total, 230,560*l.*.—*Deduct*, stoppages from the troops for their rations, 35,487*l.*; total expenditure in 1829, 195,073*l.* This expenditure out of the revenue of Great Britain has since been reduced, as I find that the disbursements from the military chest, from the 1st January, 1832, to the 31st March, 1833, amounted to 172,905*l.*, and the reductions are still going on.

In the ordnance estimates for 1835-6, the charges are—

Ordinary.—Storekeeper, 1, 660*l.*; deputy ditto, 1, 350*l.*; clerks, 6, 804*l.*; total No. 8, 1814*l.*

Extraordinary.—Works and repairs, 2056*l.*; storekeeper's expenditure, 2633*l.*; total extraordinary, 4689*l.*; grand total of both, 6503*l.*

Barracks (ordinary).—Barrack-masters, No. 2, 403*l.*; barrack-sergeants, No. 6, 275*l.*; total No. 8, charge, 678*l.*

Barracks (extraordinary).—Building and repairs, 4110*l.*; barrack-masters' expenditure, 767*l.*; total, 4877*l.*; grand total, 5555*l.*

Civil Establishments for the year 1834 is thus stated:—Civil establishments, 16,751; contingencies, 1234*l.*; judicial, 2630*l.*; contingencies, 83*l.*; ecclesiastical, 447*l.*; miscellaneous, 3768*l.*; pen-

sions, 4537*l.*; total, 29,452*l.* (exclusive of shillings). 3600*l.* of the pensions have been granted, and are payable in England.

The total expense of the settlement may be estimated at less than 200,000*l.* per annum, of which 30,000*l.* and upwards is raised in the garrison, as before shown; but with the system of retrenchment now in operation, the charge on the revenues of Great Britain will not, I should suppose, exceed 150,000*l.* per annum—a trifling sum when compared with the importance of such a political, commercial, and military station as Gibraltar.

Wharfage Toll.—On all wines and spirits, strong waters or cordials, landed or introduced into the garrison, per butt, 4*s.* 4*d.*: one moiety of which to be remitted as drawback on re-exportation. On all tobacco landed or introduced into the garrison, 4½*d.* per cwt. or per hogshead, 4*s.* 4*d.*: one moiety of which to be remitted as drawback on re-exportation. In case of dispute as to weight, to be weighed at the expense of the merchant.

Duties on Wines.—On all wines consumed in taverns, wine-houses, canteens, or other public-houses, per gallon, 4*d.*; gauging do. do. ¼*d.*; total per gallon, 4¼*d.*

Spirits, Strong Waters, and Cordials, intended for Consumption in the Garrison.—For every gallon of such spirits, strong waters, or cordials, of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, 2*s.* 2*d.*; gauging-fee per

gallon, $\frac{1}{2}d.$; total per gallon, 2s. $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ A proportion of six gallons of spirits to each pipe of wine is allowed free of duty, for the purpose of infusion, under the superintendence of an officer belonging to the revenue department.

Storage on Wines and Spirits.—On every botasso or large butt, 5 rs. or 1s. 10d.; on every pipe, 4 rs. or 1s. $5\frac{1}{4}d.$; do. hogshead, 2 rs. or $8\frac{3}{4}d.$; do. quarter cask, 1 r. or $4\frac{1}{4}d.$; do. 18 gallon barrel, 10 qts. or $2\frac{3}{4}d.$; do. Demijohn, 10 qts. or $2\frac{3}{4}d.$; do. hamper containing 54 bottles, 2 rs. or $8\frac{3}{4}d.$; do. case containing 12 do. 8 qts. or $2\frac{1}{4}d.$; do. do. 72 do. 2 rs. or $8\frac{3}{4}d.$

Auction Fees.—On all goods sold by auction, allowing one-half per cent. to the auctioneer, two and a half per cent.

Weighing Fees.—On all spices per cwt., $4\frac{1}{4}d.$; oil and other fine merchandize per do., $2\frac{3}{4}d.$; coarse goods per cwt., 1d.; grain, and articles of measurement per fanega, $\frac{1}{2}d.$

Duties and Fees on Licenses and other Police Matters.—*Fees on Documents relating to Crown Property, and issued from the Crown Land Office.*—Original grant of ground under seal on paper, 6l. 18s. 8d.; transfer or partition or confirmation of do., 3l. 9s. 4d.; approval of a deed of mortgage, 3l. 9s. 4d.; new lease, 6l. 18s. 8d.

Casual Police Fees.—Travelling passport, 4s. 4d.; bond, of whatever nature, 17s. 4d.; marriage license, 3l. 9s. 4d.

Duties and Fees on Licenses paid annually in advance.—Tobacconist license, 17s. 4d.; porter do.,

4s. 4d.; hawker do., 1l. 6s.; broker do., 3l. 9s. 4d.; truck-cart do., 1l. 6s.; box-cart do., 17s. 4d.; eating-houses, 4l. 6s. 8d.

Duties and Fees on Licenses paid quarterly in advance.—Tavern licenses per diem, 4s. 4d.; billiard-table do. do. 4s. 4d.; retail wine and spirit store do., 6s. 6d.; wine-house, 6s. 6d.

Shipping Duties.—These are now levied on ships and vessels arriving at, touching at, or having communication with the town, territory, shipping, or anchorage of Gibraltar, and collected and received in pursuance of the order in Council before referred to, in lieu of the quarantine rates previously levied.

For every square-rigged ship, having three masts, 2l. 3s. 4d.; for every brig, 1l. 14s. 8d.; for every schooner, sloop, xebeque, mistico, galliot, or other the like kind of fore-and-aft rigged vessel, 1l. 1s. 8d.; and for every small coasting vessel, 17s. 4d. And, in addition to each of the foregoing rates, a further duty, when the ship or vessel is liable to quarantine, of 8s. 8d. For every day's attendance by a health-guard, when embarked, 4s. 4d.; for every visit by a health-guard to a vessel in quarantine, 2s. 2d.; for every day's attendance by a health-guard, in superintending the discharge of a vessel in quarantine, 8s. 8d.; for every bill of health, 4s. 4d.; for every endorsement on a bill of health, 4s. 4d.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Gibraltar has been of the utmost value to England during her wars, and it is still of considerable importance. Shortly after its capture in 1704, the settlement was wisely made a free port by Queen Ann, and it soon became a most

valuable entrepot for the distribution of British manufactures to the Barbary states, and to the different countries bordering on the Mediterranean. Progressively increasing, Gibraltar became at length the centre of commerce, which, considering the number of inhabitants, was perhaps without its equal in the world. An idea of the extent to which it was carried may be judged from the fact, that in one year the value of British manufactured goods imported into Gibraltar, direct from England, and *exclusive* of colonial produce, was nearly 3,000,000*l.* sterling! And during the last war, it is important to add, that Gibraltar was the most abundant and never-failing source for the supply of the British army with cash. Various circumstances have occurred to diminish the trade of Gibraltar; among the most prominent are the creation of a free port at Cadiz, the establishment of manufactories in the eastern parts of Spain, and the various royal orders of the Spanish Government, which place Gibraltar almost in a state of commercial non-intercourse with Spain, under the plea of preventing smuggling into the provinces adjacent to the fortress. Yet, with all these disadvantages, the trade of Gibraltar is still worth annually upwards of a million sterling¹; and there is more probability of increase than decrease. The following table will convey some idea of the trade of the port for the last fifteen years :—

¹ In 1830, the value of produce of the United Kingdom imported was 988,234*l.*, and of Colonial produce 129,381*l.*; total, 1,117,615*l.*

Cotton and Woollen Goods, &c. exported from the United Kingdom to Gibraltar, 1820 to 1831.

Years.	Cottons, White or Plain.	Printed or Dressed.	Hosiery and Small Wares, Declared Value.	Twist and Yarn.	Total Value of Cottons.	Woollen Manufactures, Declared Value.	Grand Total of Cotton and Woollen Manufactures.	Declared Value of all other Ar- ticles.	Tons of Shipping from Great Britain.		
									British.	Foreign.	Total.
1820	Yards. 6670756	Yards. 7849076	£ 21476	lbs. 61182	£ 848940	£ 98913	£ 947853	No Returns.	29775	5551	35326
1821	5657362	7012146	24025	31762	716028	127131	843159		16884	389	17273
1822	9257810	12564351	24240	42580	1090376	193911	1284287		22468	259	22727
1823	5162335	8841514	21328	64467	636834	138071	774905		23036	2071	25107
1824	10372024	10359280	19542	131635	961761	160259	1122020		19557	1539	21096
1825	6604838	7536984	14118	78830	564964	90781	655745		17813	3896	21709
1826	6873599	6379692	14039	119762	516709	60975	577684		16962	1817	18779
1827	9221816	7981075	19223	105262	621230	72844	694074		18973	1702	20675
1828	9763381	8744559	22038	53832	666232	71863	738095		19394	628	20022
1829	6242358	3999731	10062	21873	322969	39885	362654		10191	235	10426
1830	3008355	1750307	5772	14835	146448	20730	167178		10677	968	11645
1831	6076611	3832398	6158	39196	248068	15459	263527		14349	723	15072

It is the duty of our Government to remonstrate with that of Spain with regard to the disabilities under which the commerce of Gibraltar has been placed. Our cotton goods are totally prohibited. Ships touching at Gibraltar are treated almost as if they were infectious, and the following scale of duties levied at Barcelona on articles coming from Gibraltar and Genoa, will shew the unfair position in which our merchants are placed :—

Duties paid at Barcelona on Goods imported there from Gibraltar and Genoa in Spanish Vessels.

FROM GIBRALTAR.	FROM GENOA.
Duty on 33 barrels of copperas (copparroza), weighing 304 cwt. dol. 341	Duty on 35 barrels of copperas, equal in quality to the opposite parcel, weighing 304 cwt. . . . dol. 221
Ditto on 25 bales of cotton, weighing 4650 lbs. . . . 203	Ditto on 25 bales of cotton, equal in quality to the opposite par- cel, weighing 4650 lbs. . . . 133
	Difference 190
Dollars 544	Dollars 544

Goods imported in foreign bottoms are subject to an extra duty of 40s., and hides and other colonial articles pay in proportion.

Gibraltar Shipping inwards in 1834—from

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
170	24412	46	7979	67	14154	1963	146326	2246	192871	20308

The chief articles imported were tobacco, 5056 hds.; wines, 866471 gal.; spirits, 115713 gal.

MONEYS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.—Spanish currency is still much used. The effective hard dollar = 4s. 4d.; the current dollar being estimated at 2s. 3d.; hard dollars = 2s. 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ d.; reals and quartos of both hard and current dollars are the same, the former being = 4 $\frac{1}{3}$ d., and the latter 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Accounts are kept in current dollars (pesos), divided into eight reals of sixteen quartos each; twelve reals currency = one cob, or hard dollar, by which goods are bought and sold, and three reals are considered equal to five Spanish reals vellon.

Gold Coins.—A doubloon is sixteen dol. = 3l. 9s. 4d.; half do. = 1l. 14s. 8d.; sixteenth do. 4s. 4d. —*Silver Coins.* Dollar piece, 4s. 4d.; half do, 2s. 2d.; quarter do. 1s. 1d.; Peseta, 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.; eighth of a dollar = 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; half peseta = 5d.; sixteenth of a dollar = 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.; quarter peseta = 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. There is also a small quantity of British silver coin.—*Copper Coin.* Two quarterpiece = $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; one do. $\frac{1}{4}$ d.; chovy = $\frac{1}{8}$ d. (Also a quantity of British copper coin.) There is no paper currency. The rate of exchange on London, at ninety days' sight, varies from 48d. to 49d.

Weights and Measures.—Arrobe, twenty-six lbs. English = 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ gallons. Five fanegas (strake measure of wheat) or eight Winchester bushels, or two heaped fanegas of Indian corn = 4 $\frac{1}{8}$ bushels. Pipe, 117 gallons = 126 gallons English wine measure. The Spanish quintal of 100 lb. = 101 $\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. English.

GENERAL VIEW.—The foregoing details sufficiently illustrate the importance of Gibraltar to Great Britain, whether it be viewed politically or commercially. By British valour it has been acquired, and by Bri-

tish statesmanship preserved. May the day be far distant when treachery or dissension at home shall cause this noble fortress, the protector of our flag, honour, and trade in the Mediterranean, to be neglected or contemned. Our possession of the "Rock" is not only of the highest importance to a maritime nation like England, but it is also of the most essential use to the states of Western Europe in the event of Russia attempting to barbarize the more civilized portion of the continent. Russia with the Key of Dardanelles, and either holding Gibraltar—or being in amity with a state retaining it, who had no power or inclination to resist her aggressions, would possess a fatal influence over the freedom and happiness of millions. While we retain such fortresses there is no occasion to embroil ourselves in the internal affairs of other nations. For upwards of a century this deservedly celebrated bulwark has been part and parcel of our oceanic empire, enabling us the better to hold our footing in the eastern part of Europe, and to wield with effect the destinies of the world.

BOOK II.

MALTA AND GOZO.

CHAPTER I.

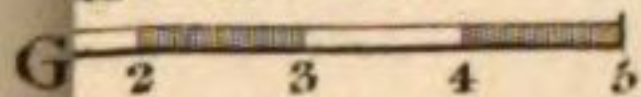
LOCALITY, AREA, HISTORY, &c.—SIEGE BY THE TURKS—
KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN, &c.

MALTA, and its adjacent island of Gozo, are situate between Sicily and the African coast, in the mouth of the great bay formed by Cape Bon and Cape Razat, in the parallel of (*i. e.* Valetta, the capital) $35^{\circ} 54'$ north, and the meridian of $14^{\circ} 34'$ east, the most southerly island in Europe. Malta has been known for more than eighteen hundred years under the name of Melite or Melita; Pliny and Strabo both mention it under this denomination, and there is little doubt that Melita, and not an islet on the Illyrian shore of the Adriatic, was the site of St. Paul's shipwreck. It appears to have been at one period a Carthaginian colony, when this singular people held such powerful sway in the Mediterranean; but whether it

EUROPE.

ALTA AND OZO

Scale of Miles



Area 27 Malta.....20 Miles
 Popula D°.....12
 Highest Miles.....95
 105,559
 Acquisition 1800 A.D.
 and.....1200 feet



Drawn & Engd

was the island mentioned under the appellation of Hyperia (by Homer in the Odyssey) and Ogygia, is doubtful.

The Phœnicians landed, it is said, on Malta about 1519 years before Christ, and the navigation of the Mediterranean belonging at this period to that commercial people, they formed a colony there which soon rose in trade and wealth. Whether Malta was inhabited previous to the landing of the Phœnicians is doubtful: according to fabulous history, it was originally tenanted by the Phæacians (qu. Phœnicians), a race of giants. After being in possession of the island for upwards of seven centuries, the Greeks, 736 years B.C., drove out the Phœnicians settled on the island, and called it *Melitas*.

Both the Phœnicians and the Greeks, while in the possession of Malta, erected extensive buildings, and struck different coins, the relics of some of which are still extant.

About 528 years B.C. the Carthaginians disputed the dominion of Malta or Melita with the Greeks, and it was for some time divided between these two powerful nations; the latter were, however, finally compelled to abandon the island to the Carthaginians, under whose sway it grew into such magnitude and wealth as to excite the cupidity and enterprize of the Romans in the first Punic war, when it was plundered by Attilius Regulus and seized upon by Cornelius. The Romans, however, were soon expelled from the island, and only recovered it after the naval victory gained by C. Lutatius, 242 years B.C., when a peace

was granted to the Carthaginians on the hard condition of their giving up to the Romans all the islands in their possession between Africa and Italy. The Romans were justly proud of their acquisition of Melita; they took every precaution to gain the attachment of the resident Greek and mixed population, permitted them the continuation of their ancient customs, made it a municipium, and allowed the inhabitants to be governed by their own laws, under a prætor dependant on the prætorship of Sicily.

The commerce and manufactures of the island were sedulously encouraged, the cotton and linen cloths of Melita were then so famed for their fineness and the skill with which they were prepared, as to be regarded at Rome as an article of luxury. Great attention was paid to improving and beautifying the settlement. The merchants and the sailors were at this period accustomed to repair to the temples to offer incense to the protecting gods of the island and its trade. On the division of the Roman empire, the island of Malta fell to Constantine, but the feuds of religious dissensions occupying all parties, the Romans, in their colonies, as well as at home, felt the desolating inroads of barbarism. The Vandals seized upon Sicily in 454 A.D., and next took possession of Malta, whence they were driven ten years after by the Goths. Under the Goths and Vandals the commerce of Malta perished; it was, however, partially revived under the reign of Justinian, who sent Belisarius to wrest Africa from the Vandals. Belisarius landed in Malta A.D. 553, and reunited it to the remnant of the empire,

but not being allowed the immunities previously granted by its former masters, the island never entirely recovered its ancient splendour.

Malta became now a prey to feuds and dissensions, and for three centuries from the reign of Justinian we are ignorant of the events which mark its history. About the year 870 A.D. the inhabitants called in the Arabs, but they were driven out the same year by the bravery of the Greeks, who from thence remained undisturbed masters for thirty-four years ; but the Arabs again descended in great force, exterminated the Greeks, sold their wives and children for slaves, and established a government, dependent upon the Emir of Sicily. The name of Melitas was then by the Arabs corrupted into that of Malta. To supply the deficiency of taxes which the Arabs could not levy on the Maltese, the former fitted out piratical cruisers, fortified the city of Notabile, built a fortress on the site of the present castle of St. Angelo, and enriched Malta with the plunder acquired on the sea. The Arabs, in their turn, were also driven out of Malta by the Normans, A.D. 1090, under Count Roger, who established the popular council, which was composed of clergy, nobles, and people freely elected. The island was afterwards given up to the Germans, on account of the marriage between Constance, heiress of Sicily, and Henry VI., son of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa. Malta was erected into a county and marquisate, but its trade was now totally ruined, and for a considerable period it remained solely a fortified garrison.

Malta remained for seventy-two years subject to the emperors of Germany; and Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX., King of France, on becoming King of Sicily, made himself master of the island. On the change of sovereigns in Sicily, after the well known affair of the Sicilian vespers, Malta continued faithful to the French, but was soon conquered by the King of Arragon, who, as well as (his successors in the supremacy in 1414) the kings of Castile ceded it in title of fief to some favourite of the monarch or servant of the crown.

The Maltese at this time beheld themselves twice mortgaged for sums lent to their princes; but, always jealous of their liberty, they made a noble effort to retrieve themselves from this thralldom, by twice paying 30,000 florins of gold (a large sum in those days), for which the island was pawned. King Alphonzo, therefore, A.D. 1428, declared and promised that in future Malta and Gozo should never be separated from the kingdom of Sicily. Alphonzo permitted, also, the inhabitants, in case of a breach of promise, to oppose him by force, without such conduct being deemed rebellious.

Charles V., with a view towards commanding the Mediterranean, and to secure the coast of Sicily, became master of Malta; and aware of its great advantages, and that he might be saved the expense of its garrison, while at the same time he might prevent his European enemies from making a descent on the possession, located the order of St. John of Jerusalem at Malta, who being driven from their principal place

of residence, Rhodes, were glad to accept the aid of a powerful prince, who thus, in 1530 A.D., granted to the knights, in perpetual sovereignty, the islands of Malta, Gozo, and the city of Tripoli, under favourable conditions for the Maltese. And here it may be necessary to give a brief account of the origin of the Knights of St. John.

The hospital of St. John existed in Jerusalem from the reign of the Emperor Justinian, and was intended for the reception of strangers and the crowds of pilgrims who arrived from all parts to visit the Holy Sepulchre. The founder thereof was Peter Gerard, a native of Provence, who, in 1099 A.D., formed the association of a few charitable persons to relieve the sick, and took up their abode in a house distinguished by the name of the Hospital of St. John, and hence termed "*Hospitaller brothers of St. John the Baptist at Jerusalem.*" They were invested with the regular habit of the St. Augustine order, and took the three vows of chastity, obedience, and poverty, before the patriarch of Jerusalem, under whose immediate authority they remained for some time, until Pope Paschal II., by a bull dated February 15, 1113, appointed Gerard "Provost and Guardian of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem," the lands and donations of which latter, as well as all that should in future belong to it, were enfranchised from tithes. By the bull it was also provided that the successor of Gerard was to be freely elected by the brothers. The successor of Gerard (Raymond Duppuis) extended the design of the hospitallers, and instead of being merely

comforters of the sick and poor, they began to afford the pilgrims and strangers a safe escort from the Holy City to their own homes; the country from Jerusalem to the first port where it was possible to embark for Europe being inhabited by the opponents of Christianity, who used every means to destroy the followers of that faith. The prayer of the Hospitalers that they might become a military order, without, however, relinquishing their religious habits, was granted; the patriarch of Jerusalem armed them himself, and they took an oath before him to defend the Holy Sepulchre to the last drop of their blood, and to combat the "infidels" wherever they should meet them. On the conclusion of the ceremony, the Knights of St. John offered their services to the King of Jerusalem, and afterwards, with the Knights Templars, became the principal support of that ruler, always, however, considering themselves as auxiliaries, and not as subjects. The order was now re-organized, the master's assistants formed into a chapter or council, and rules and statutes instituted and sanctioned by the Pope. The crusading spirit of the age lent strength, wealth, and lustre to the new order; donations were bestowed on it from all quarters; and in consequence of the numerous individuals from different countries who joined the association, the Knights agreed to divide themselves into seven *languages*. The French having founded the order, were the most numerous; the three first *languages* being those of Provence, Auvergne, and France; the next four those of Italy, Arragon, England, and

Germany. In process of time Castile was added to the original seven languages, and the Anglo-Bavarian was substituted for that of England.

It would be beyond my limits and object to enter into a detail of the rules and progress of the order; suffice it to say, that the principal nobility in Christendom were soon found to compose its main parts; the order being divided into three sections according to their birth, rank, and functions, viz.—1st, the Knights of Justice (which was only open to the descendants of an ancient nobility); 2d, Religious Chaplains and Priests of Obedience; and, 3d, Serving Brothers; and it is on record, as one of the singular phenomena of that period, that the highest ranks of society in Europe sent their finest children to Jerusalem, to be brought up under the tuition of the Knights, previous to enlisting under their banners.

The Hospitallers of St. John remained in the Holy Land until 1289, A.D., when they were compelled to follow the fortunes of the Latin Christians, and retreat from Palestine. The order remained some time at Cyprus, but having captured Rhodes, in 1307, from some Greek rebels and Mahometan corsairs, the Hospitallers removed thither, and soon began to recover from the depressed state into which they had fallen, and which was as much owing to their fierce contests with the Knights Templars as with the Infidels. At Rhodes the order had still to contend with powerful enemies. Bashaw Mischa Palæologus, a renegado Christian, besieged Rhodes in 1480, with a fleet of 160 ships, and an army of 100,000 men; and after a siege of 89 days, retired with a loss of 9000 slain

and 15,000 wounded. The Turks determined on the expulsion of the order from Rhodes, and landed on the island, 26th June, 1522, with a force of 150,000 men, who were presently followed by the Emperor Solyman with additional forces. L'Isle Adam, the grand master, placing himself at the head of 600 knights, supported by 4500 regular troops, together with some citizen soldiers, resolved to die in defence of the order. Aid from the European sovereigns was sought in vain, the Pope and other potentates contenting themselves with the gift of prayers; nevertheless, the gallant knights withstood a six months' siege from the overwhelming Turkish army, until, owing to treachery from one of their own body, their gunpowder was exhausted; and after 80,000 Turks (according to the confession of the Ottomans) had fallen before the besieged, and an equal number had died of sickness, the Janissaries entered the city, and the few knights who had survived this murderous attack, together with 4000 inhabitants, quitted Rhodes to seek another asylum. A home, after some wandering, was given to these gallant men by Charles V. (October 26th, 1530); and that home, as before remarked, was Malta, then in a state of wretched destitution. The knights soon changed the face of the island; churches, hospitals, and infirmaries were speedily erected; a regular, and indeed magnificent city, built upon a rude and barren rock, and formidable batteries constructed, so as to render their new home the strongest place in Christendom. A brief account of their position at this period will be acceptable.

The Order was composed of eight languages.

	Number of Command- deries.	Estimated Value.	Paid into the Public Treasury.
	£ sterling.	£ sterling.	£ sterling.
France had three,..... { Provence..... { Auvergne..... { France	249	160340	58040
Spain two,.. { Arragon..... { Castile.....	75	61517	27145
Portugal.....	78	55598	9187
Italy.....	192	60208	23533
Anglo-Bavaria, including } Germany.....	54	31319	6651
Total.....	648	368982	124556*

* The present enlightened and deservedly esteemed Governor of Malta, Major-General Sir Frederick Ponsonby, has been so obliging as to transmit to me from Malta, among other valuable documents, the above authentic information relative to this singular military-religious order.

This return is made out from the best sources that can be obtained. It must, however, only be considered as approximative. Previous to the Reformation in England, the order possessed a considerable income in Great Britain and in Ireland¹.

Besides the receipts arising from the commanderies, there were trifling taxes levied in the island, chiefly of customs and excise, which, together with the rent of landed property, amounted to about 30,000*l.* a year. The revenue of the grand master was about 35,000*l.* a year, arising from one com-

¹ There is, in the British Museum, a court-roll of the possessions of the order; Tanner's "Notitia Monastica" also gives information on the subject.

mandery in each of the priories, and certain monopolies in Malta. The average annual income and expenditure of the treasury of Malta, between the years 1779 and 1788, is stated to have been:—Income, 136,141*l.*; expenditure, 126,186*l.*¹.

The grand master was elected by the members of the order resident in Malta, who had the right of voting. The third day after the death of a grand master was always fixed upon for the election of his successor. The eight languages, which composed the body of the order, assembled in their respective chapels in the church of St. John, in Valetta, and each named three knights who were to vote for the whole. These twenty-four electors retired into the chamber of the conclave, and named a triumvirate consisting of a knight, a chaplain, and a serving brother of arms, whom they invested with the power of election. The grand master had not only a military and regular authority over all the members of the order, but sovereign power and all regal rights over his subjects. The legislative power resided in the council and chapter of the order, in which the grand master had only two votes; but he alone could convoke the former, and no subject could be discussed in the latter but what was proposed by himself.

The title given him by the King of France was “*tres cher et tres aimé cousin*,” by other princes, “*Eminentissime Princeps*.” The following was the style of all public acts:—

¹ The expenditure of the order in the island was at least 400,000*l.* per annum.

“ Dei Gratia Sacræ Domus Hospitalis Sancti Joannis Hierosolymitani et Militaris Ordinis Sancti Sepulcri Dominici, et Ordinis Sancti Antonii Viennensis Magister Humilis Pauperumque Jesu Christi Custos.”

The Order was divided into three classes :—First, the Knights of Justice ;—Secondly, the Chaplains ;—Thirdly, the Serving Brothers of Arms. They all had votes in their different languages, and possessed Commanderies. The Maltese, a few of whom were members of the Order, were excluded from voting at the election of the Grand Master.

There were besides attached to the Order, persons who were called Brothers de Stage or Donats ; they wore the demi-cross. This was a distinction given to those who had merited reward in having served well in subaltern situations.

In a Military Calendar of the Order for the year 1742, it is stated that there were 2132 Knights of Justice attached to the Order, and 283 Chaplains and Brothers of Arms, and there were 2500 slaves belonging to the Order. The number of the Knights of Justice present in Valetta at the time of the arrival of the French under Buonaparte was about 600.

The following is the Succession of the Grand Masters.

	Date of Death.	Country.
L'Isle Adam	1534	French.
Peter Dupont	1538	Ditto.
Didier de St. Jaille ..	1536	Ditto.
John D'Omedes	1553	Spanish.
Claude de la Sangle ..	1557	French.

	Date of Death.	Country.
La Valette	1568	French.
Peter de Monte	1571	Italian.
Dela Cassiere	1582	French.
De Verdale	1595	Ditto.
Martin Gargez	1601	Spanish.
Wignacourt	1622	French.
Mendez Vasconcellas	1623	Portuguese.
Anthony de Paule	1636	French.
Lascaris	1657	Italian.
Redin	1660	Spanish.
Clermont	1660	French.
Raphael Cottoner	1663	Spanish.
Nicolas Cottoner	1680	Ditto.
Caraffa	1690	Neapolitan.
Adrian de Wignacourt	1697	French.
Raymond Perellos	1720	Spanish.
Zondadary	1722	Italian.
Ant. Manoel de Vilhena	1736	Portuguese.
Raymond Despuig	1741	Majorca.
Emanuel Pinto	1773	Portuguese.
Francis Ximenes	1775	Spanish.
Emanuel de Rohan	1797	French.
Hompesch	*	German.

* Surrendered to the French Republic, 12th June, 1798.

With this interposition, the history of Malta may now be resumed.

The Knights of St. John of Jerusalem were scarcely settled in Malta, until they rendered good service to Charles V., and indeed to all Europe, by their frequent chastisement and repulsion of the African Corsairs. The Turks in revenge attacked Malta, but were compelled to retire, not however before they had carried off 6000 natives from Gozo. Subsequent to this attack, the Knights made great efforts to

strengthen the fortifications ; Fort St. Elmo was built and named in honour of one of the towers of a similar name that defended the entrance to Rhodes, and Fort St. Michael was built upon Mount St. Julien ; knights, burgesses, and peasants, relieved each other, by turns, in completing the stupendous works which still exist for the defence of Malta ; the prizes taken by the far-famed galleys of the Order contributed to enrich the island, and the Grand Master, La Sangle, expended his wealth in adding to its strength and beauty, in gratitude for which, Fort St. Michael was then changed to the name of Isle La Sangle.

La Valette, one of the most active Grand Masters, was raised by the knights to the Grand Mastership 17th August, 1557 ; while this intrepid and able man governed, Solyman attacked Malta with a Turkish fleet of 159 vessels with oars, containing 30,000 land troops, Janissaries and Spahis, and a considerable number of store ships conveyed artillery, horses, &c. The Turks landed at St. Thomas's Creek (Ladderport) ; La Valette had but 700 knights, and 8500 of regular and militia Maltese soldiers ; nevertheless, 1500 Turks fell on their first landing. Solyman commenced a vigorous land attack on St. Elmo Castle, (24th May, 1565), with ten eighty-pounders, two culverins, sixty-pounders, and an enormous basilise carrying stone balls of 160 lbs. weight, to which was added at the same time a furious cannonade from the Turkish ships with long culverins. The castle had but 300 men for its defence. The Turks attempted to storm the ravelins, which cost them a loss of 3000 men, and

the Order lost 20 knights and 100 soldiers ; the siege still continued ; La Valette cheered the spirits and stimulated the drooping courage of the small band in St. Elmo ; at night he sent boats to convey away the wounded, and throw in reinforcements : the Turks persisted in their desperate efforts, and suffered much in their attacks from hoops covered with wool and cotton steeped in brandy and oil, saltpetre, &c., and then thrown lighted on them from the battlements. The Bashaws who had charge of the siege, ashamed at the resistance offered by a single castle, determined on a general assault on the 16th June ; the night previous to which was spent in one continued and tremendous cannonade, which razed the wall even to the rock on which the castle was built. The Turkish army entered the ditch (which they had nearly filled up) to the sound of martial music, and the assault commenced with terrific fury on either side, the Turks being determined to revenge their past defeats, and the knights intent only on the defence of their honour, which was far dearer to them than life : the batteries at Fort St. Angelo, La Sangle, and the Burgh (Borgo), continued an incessant fire on the besiegers, and the fiery hoops and combustibles thrown from the walls, spread death and terror around ; after an assault of six hours, the Turks gave way, with a loss of 2000 men, while seventeen knights were killed in the breach, and 300 Maltese perished or were disabled. La Valette instantly threw a reinforcement of 150 volunteers into the castle, to prevent which, in future, the Turks cut off all communi-

cation between the Burgh and the castle, by means of extensive entrenchments, at which they worked night and day.

On the 21st June another grand assault was made on St. Elmo by the whole Turkish army, who were three times repulsed, and as often with the most sanguinary imprecations returned to the charge; numbers of the knights perished, and the close of the day alone checked for a time this unequal contest. The heroic defenders, as soon as night closed, sent an expert swimmer to cross the Port, and informed the Grand Master of their deplorable situation; five large boats were instantly armed with knights, anxious to join their aid to that of their wounded and exhausted companions; but all their efforts to get to the castle were fruitless. The knights in St. Elmo, seeing all relief hopeless, determined to perish in its defence; they took the Sacrament during the night, and having tenderly embraced each other, returned to their posts to meet the death which was now inevitable; those whose wounds prevented their walking were carried in chairs to the breaches, and with swords grasped in their feeble hands, had a death-like energy given to their expiring strength. At day break the Turks returned to the assault, shouting with the assurance of victory; they were met as before with invincible courage; the Maltese vied with the knights in heroism, and those who were unable to stand continued still to fight. After four hours' assault, there remained but sixty men to defend the breach; L'Amraude, the commanding knight, finding the Turks on the point of forcing it, called to his aid some soldiers, who, till

that moment, had been placed on the cavalier before the fort; the Bashaw, finding the breach thus reinforced, pretended to retreat, but it was only to take possession of the cavalier; the besieged took advantage of this respite to bind up their wounds, in order that they might be able yet a little while longer to continue the combat, which the Turks returned to at 11 o'clock with redoubled fury.

The Janissaries having gained the top of the cavalier, made choice of those they wished to destroy; most of the knights were thus slain, and the few remaining soldiers and survivors perished in the breach; the terrible assault having only ceased when not one knight or Maltese was alive. The Bashaw entered the castle, but found none to wreak his fury on, all its noble defenders, namely, 300 knights and 1300 Maltese, were slain; while he himself had lost 8000 of the flower of his Janissaries. "What resistance," exclaimed the Turkish commander, looking towards the Burgh and St. Angelo, "may we expect from the parent, when the child, small as it is, has cost us our bravest soldiers!" Mustapha Bashaw had then, as an intimidation, the breasts of the knights cut open, their hearts torn out, and as an insult to the Christians, their bodies placed in the shape of a cross, then covering them with their *soubrevest*, and fastening them to planks, they were thrown into the sea, that the tide might carry them to the Burgh. La Valette, in order to teach the Bashaw that he could make reprisals, had the Turkish prisoners put to death, and loading the cannon with their still bleeding heads, fired them into the enemy's camp.

Throughout the siege of Fort St. Elmo the Grand Master never ceased importuning the Viceroy of Sicily for his promised supplies, but in vain ; and seeing relief now hopeless, the knights determined on a desperate resistance, and that they would give no quarter. The Bashaw sent to the Burgh proposals of surrender, but La Valette threatened to hang the envoy who dared to make such a request ; and, when returning the aged Turk through their armed forces, showed him the different fortifications, telling him, “ On these ramparts we mean to surrender to the Bashaw, and we reserve the deep trenches to bury him and his Janissaries.”

The Turks immediately raised nine batteries against La Sangle, St. Michael, and the Burgh ; seventy large cannon began to batter in breach, and where the rock was too hard to open trenches, walls of stone and sand were raised ; the grand effort being to block up the castle, so that there should be no external connection either by sea or land ; before, however, the passage by land was entirely closed, forty knights, and some other gentlemen of different nations, favoured by a thick fog, landed in the Black Stone Creek, and safely reached the Burgh. It was primarily endeavoured by the Turks to reduce La Sangle and its castle, and they were constantly fired upon from a battery erected on Coradin heights, which commanded both.

The besieged in La Sangle being cut off from all communication, except by the sea, the Turks proposed to transport boats by land from Port Marsa Musceit to the Grand Port, it being impossible for them to

pass any other way without going under the batteries of Fort St. Angelo, which would have immediately sunk them. A deserter from the Turks revealed this daring plot, and the besieged took new precautions to defend the coast line of their works; above all things it was necessary to prevent the Turks approaching the walls of Fort St. Michael; a stoccado, as it was called, was therefore constructed from the Coradin rock to the end of the island, by fixing stakes in the sea, fastened together by iron rings, through which passed a long chain.

When the water was too deep, or the bottom of the rock too hard to drive in the stakes, the want was supplied by nailing together long sail yards and masts of ships; other stoccadoes were made to prevent the enemy coming near the coast; the whole of the works being carried on by night, when the Turkish artillery had ceased to play upon the batteries. At the end of nine nights the Bashaw was astonished to see such efficient defences raised to the passage of his boats and the landing of the troops; he sent, therefore, in the night, some good Turkish swimmers, with hatchets in their girdles, to cut down the palisades; the noise thus made alarmed the garrison, who finding the shot from above did not reach the Turks, some Maltese seamen threw themselves into the water, with swords in their teeth, and swam to the stoccadoes, and repulsed the Turks with considerable loss. The Turks next day returned to the charge, and fastened cables and ropes to the palisades, which were almost instantly cut across by the Maltese swimmers. These singular contests were now laid

aside, and the whole power of the Turkish batteries directed towards effecting a breach in the advanced works of the Burgh and Fort St. Michael, which, however, when accomplished, the Bashaw was unwilling to assault until the arrival of Haseen, the Viceroy of Algiers, who landed with a strong reinforcement of skilful soldiers.

The Algerines were commanded by the young son of Barbarossa, who, despising the castles, entreated that the Bashaw would let him carry them at once sword in hand; the permission was given,—a destructive fire was opened from the Turkish batteries;—all their slaves, &c., conveyed a number of gallies across Mount Sceberras and Marsa Musceit post, and having set them afloat, they were manned by the Algerines, and commanded by an able Greek renegado named Candelissa. Two thousand picked Turkish soldiers were added to the Algerine storming army, who advanced to the assault, preceded by Mahometan priests, with the Koran in their hands, and performing the rites of their religion while imprecating the curses of heaven on the Christians, and promising eternal rewards to those who might fall in the praiseworthy object of accomplishing their utter destruction. The object of the Algerines was to make a bridge of the stoccadoes themselves, for which purpose they brought planks, which, however, proved too short to reach the shore. The Maltese batteries poured destruction on the boats of their antagonists, one volley alone killing 400 Turks. Again and again the Moslems, urged by the stimulus of religious fanaticism, returned to the attack; the Algerines at length reached the shore,

where death met them in various forms, and Candelissa, their general, seeing them stagger and inclined to retreat, ordered the boats to a distance, that flight might be cut off.

Despair then added to courage; the entrenchments were approached with escalading ladders, and after a most sanguinary contest of five hours, the Algerines reached the top of the entrenchment, and planted thereon seven standards; the knights, though reduced to a very small number, no sooner perceived the standards of Islam floating on their batteries, than they returned to the contest with reinvigorated energy, and being aided by a body of resolute pikemen, which the Grand Master had sent to their assistance, they charged the Algerines and Turks with a fury which nothing could withstand;—the standards were soon gained and uprooted; their defenders driven sword in hand from the tops of the rampart over the parapets, those who escaped from the pike and sabre perishing of the fall. Candelissa, who had hitherto fought bravely, gave up all for lost, and left his gallant followers to maintain a running fight, which they did until a party of the garrison, incensed at their resistance, rushed out of a casement, and put to death all who were unable to reach the boats, where, indeed, death awaited them from the batteries above.

In vain the discomfited besiegers threw themselves at the feet of their conquerors; they received no other answer than "*St. Elmo!*" and out of 4000 chosen troops, scarcely 500 remained, the greater part of whom were desperately wounded. In the attack the

Order lost 100 knights and secular gentlemen, and among the former was the son of the Viceroy of Sicily. A similar dreadful carnage to the foregoing took place at another attack made on the breaches caused by the Turkish artillery on the side next Burmola and the castle of St. Michael, but the assailants were repulsed. The Bashaw, regardless of what quantity of life he sacrificed, so that Malta were reduced, resolved to harass the knights by constant renewed attacks; he, therefore, although the contest had lasted five hours, replaced the loss of the Algerines by some Janissaries recently sent by the Grand Seignior for this express purpose. Against these fresh troops, anxious to combat the Christians, the jaded and almost exhausted knights were compelled to renew the fearful struggle, and in the desperate onslaught the chosen Janissaries were repelled, with, however, a loss to the Christians of more than forty knights and 200 soldiers: by such repeated losses the Bashaw hoped finally to cut off the whole of the Christians. A sort of raised bridge was constructed for the besiegers to mount to the assault; twice during the night the besieged vainly attempted to burn it, and an effort by day cost the lives of La Valette's own nephew, and several other brave men: a well-directed cannonade at last accomplished the destruction of this singular piece of mechanism. The Bashaw, fearing the Grand Seignior might attribute these repeated failures to some fault in his conduct, called an extraordinary council of war, in which it was resolved, that the Bashaw (Mustapha), in conjunction with the Viceroy of Algiers, should continue

to storm La Sangle,—that Admiral Pilai should besiege the Grand Burgh and the Castle of St. Angelo—and that Candelissa should remain at sea with eighty gallies to prevent any relief from without. In pursuance of this resolution, the Turkish artillery kept up a constant fire against the posts allotted to them, and on the 2d August the Bashaw attempted to storm Fort St. Michael; the assault lasted six hours, and after five different attacks, the Turks were repulsed. After an interval of five days, another assault took place, which lasted four hours: on this memorable occasion, a feint was made by way of deceiving the besiegers to attack the Castile bastion: the Janissaries then advanced to the real assault, mounting the entrenchments over the dead and dying bodies of their comrades; the Christian women, and even their children joined in the defence; some were employed in conveying refreshments to their husbands, fathers, brothers, &c.;—others conveyed stones and earth to repair the breaches; and many boldly mixed among the combatants, throwing fire works, melted pitch and boiling water and oil into the middle of the Turks, who fought with firmness, and destroyed many of these heroic females.

The Bashaw, sabre in hand, headed his troops; he even slew with his own hand two Janissaries, who, pressed by the knights, had thrown themselves from the top to the bottom of the breach; but at the very moment when the Grand Master trembled for the safety of the fort, Mustapha sounded a retreat; the reason of which was that the Governor of the old city having made a sally, took possession of the

Turkish hospital, which he pillaged and burnt. Those who were fortunate enough to escape fled to Mustapha, declaring that their enemies were the advanced guard of the Sicilian troops who had just landed: the Bashaw, therefore, fearing the effect of a general consternation among his men, drew off from the attack to meet the imaginary enemy.

Throughout the month of August the Turks continued almost daily these terrific attacks; and nothing but the testimony of contemporary historians could persuade posterity that such a handful as the Christians were now reduced to, could withstand the furious assaults of thousands. Simultaneous attacks were made by the Bashaw and Admiral, and on one of these occasions (20th August), Mustapha attacked at the head of 80,000 men! the greater number armed with a kind of morions, ball-proof, which reached as low as the shoulders; these however were thrown aside by the wearers, and the usual repulse followed.

The Turks in the meantime pursued the most extensive mining operations, with a view of blowing up the whole of the fortress, but while making preparations for a final grand attack, the Viceroy of Sicily arrived on the island with reinforcements, and the Turks after one battle precipitately raised the siege and fled to their ships, after leaving 25,000 of their bravest troops among the dead. Thus ended the siege of Malta, in which 260 knights, with more than 7000 soldiers and inhabitants fell victims in the cause of Christianity.

I have been rather minute in detailing this chivalrous event, because it may teach to Great Britain the

value of such a possession in war time; and because I feel assured that on the breaking out of another European conflict, every effort will be made to destroy the English power in the Mediterranean.

The intelligence of the raising of the siege spread joy over every Christian community. Rejoicings took place in Sicily, Italy, Spain, &c. and presents and congratulations poured in for the truly ennobled La Valette.

It became however a serious question whether the Knights should abandon Malta; they were now reduced with their followers to scarcely 600 men, the greater part of whom were wounded; La Valette however declared he would rather bury himself in the ruins which Solyman, with a new and formidable fleet, was threatening to accomplish. By a daring plan, however, which has never been fully explained, the arsenal at Constantinople was burned, together with a great number of vessels, destined for Malta; and thus the Knights received a respite which enabled them to commence the reconstruction of their fortifications.

It was at this period that the city of La Valette was built, with the aid of the princes of Europe; the Pope promised 15,000 crowns; the King of France 140,000 French livres: Philip II. granted 90,000 French livres; the King of Portugal 30,000 crusadoes, and most of the distant commanders contributed property, and stripped themselves of valuables, which they generously forwarded to La Valette, who founded this handsome and well protected city, 28th March, 1566; on which occasion various gold and silver coins,

with the inscription *Melita renascens*, were scattered among the foundations.

At the battle of Lepanto (1571) in which the Turks lost 30,000 men,—their celebrated general killed, two of his sons, and 5000 officers and soldiers taken prisoners, and 140 gallies independent of those sunk or burnt, the Maltese, as usual, distinguished themselves.

In 1581, disturbances broke out in Malta, the knights rebelled against the Grand Master, whom they deposed and imprisoned, appointing Romegas as his successor.

During the reign of Vignacourt (1601), the Order gallantly distinguished itself against Patras, Lepanto, Mahometa (on the coast of Africa), the island of Largo, Fort de Laiazzo, Corinth, &c. These repeated successes induced the Turks to attack Malta, but after landing 5000 men, a precipitate retreat was effected.

In 1603 the Order indicated its jealousy of an infringement of its honour and rules. Charles de Brie, a natural son of Henry Duke of Lorraine, presented himself to be admitted a Knight of the German Order; and though the Empire endeavoured to compel his admittance, it was resolutely refused. In 1616, Vignacourt, among other useful works, such as the fortifying of St. Paul's Cove, the ports of Marsa Sirocco, Marsa Scala, and the island of Comino, caused the aqueduct to be erected which supplies La Valette with water: it was 7478 cannes¹ in length.

¹ A canne = 8 palmes, a palme = 9 inches.

In 1630. a Grand Chapter was held, and new ordinances formed—not the least remarkable of which was that which decreed the severest punishment against any of the knights engaging in duels. In 1669 the Maltese apprehending that peace being now concluded between the Venetians and Turks, the latter would use their arms against Malta in revenge for the injury done them in the late war, caused the Cotoner fortifications to be erected, new works to be added to La Floriana, Fort Ricasoli was erected, St. Elmo almost entirely rebuilt, and St. Angelo improved. The plague at this period appeared in Malta, and committed great ravages; and a Lazaretto was built at Port Marsa-Musceit.

Charles II. being at this period at war with Tripoli, the knights, unmindful of the sequestration of their property in England and Ireland by Henry VII., threw open all their ports and arsenals to the English navy, together with supplies of provision and ammunition for the crew and ordnance. Such generous conduct was handsomely acknowledged by Charles II. in the following letter to the Grand Master:—

“LETTER OF CHARLES II. OF ENGLAND, TO THE GRAND
MASTER OF MALTA.

“Carolus II. Dei Gratia Magnæ Britanniaë, Franciaë, et Iberniæ, Rex, Fidei Defensor, Eminentissimo Principi Domino Nicolao Cotoner, Magno Ordinis Melitensis Magistro, Consanguineo et Amico nostro Charissimo, salutem.

“Eminentissime Princeps, Consanguinee et Amice
noster Charissime,

“Non solum per litteras Joannis Narbrough Equitis auri, quem classibus nostris in mari Mediterraneo admirabili

jure ac potestate præfecimus, sed aliunde quoque intelleximus, quam benigne Eminentia Vestra, vestroque jussu et exemplo totus Sacer Ordo Melitensis illum, aliosque navium nostrarum bellicarum rectores tractaverit, ita ut domi et in armamentariis nostris melius quam in portu vestro Melitensi haberi non possent. Magnæ quidem hoc est amicitiae indicium, eoque majoris, quod regna et maria nostra ab usitata Sacri Ordinis Melitensis navigatione tam longe distent, ut Eminentiae Vestrae humanitati in hac parte respondendi, rarissimæ nobis occasiones expectandæ sint. Alius igitur modus exquirendus est, quo gratitudinem nostram et affectum erga Eminentiam vestram suæque sacrae Militiae socios pro merito notificemus. Quod ut faciamus, omnes opportunitates quandocumque obvenerint, libentissime amplectemur, studiosissime prosequemur. Eminentiam interim vestram totumque Ordinem Melitensem Dei optimi maximi tutelæ ex animo commendamus. Dabantur in Palatio nostro Whitehalli, die 26 Januarii, 1676."

In May, 1698, Peter I. of Russia, in pursuance of his politic course, sent a grand embassy to Malta, under *Keremetz*, with a view to paying his respects to the most famous heroes of the church militant; the ostensible motive of this embassy was religion, but in reality it had reference to using the Maltese gallies against the Turks.

During the early part of the 18th century Malta made great efforts against the Barbary and Algerine corsairs, &c., and the safety of the commerce of the Mediterranean was mainly owing to the gallantry and skill of the knights' gallies. The evils of slavery were felt in the island during the Grand Mastership of Emanuel Pinto de Fonseca, when 4000 African slaves conspired to murder and poison the knights, and which was only discovered when on the eve of

execution, by a drunken quarrel between a negro, a Persian, and Jew.

An insurrection occurred in 1775, when, as some say, the motive was to obtain sovereign power for the Pope: others that Catherine II. of Russia was intriguing for the possession of the island; and it is even asserted¹, that the object was to compel the order to restore to the Maltese their rights and privileges, which had been despotically suspended by the latter Grand Masters, and to lower the price of bread. Fort St. Elmo was surprised by 300 or 400 persons, but in consequence of a convention between the Maltese and the Order, it was soon recaptured, and peace restored; to guard against the recurrence of such an event, a regiment, consisting of Maltese and foreigners, officered by the knights, was raised for duty in the city of Valetta and the different ports, while a corp of 1200 men, entirely Maltese, was organized for the defence of the country and coasts, and ready to be incorporated with several regiments of militia now organized. These measures were formidable barriers to the subsequent French attack on Malta.

The earthquake in Calabria and Sicily in 1783 afforded an opportunity for the knights and the Maltese to evince their pious charity as well as bravery; their gallies were fitted out at midnight, and effectual succours afforded to the perishing inhabitants around Messina and Reggio.

¹ I am thus informed by a Maltese gentleman, Mr. Mitrovitch.

The consummation of the French revolution was a fatal blow to Malta; the Gallic republicans looked with wistful eyes on the neat and well kept farms and estates of the Order, which several centuries of good management had so greatly improved in various parts of France; and although when M. Necker *demanded*, as a *voluntary* contribution the third part of the revenue of every proprietor in France, the Maltese receiver for that language in Paris was the first to give in his payments,—and notwithstanding the petitions of the Lyons and Marseilles Commercial Companies for the preservation of the Maltese rights, yet measures were taken for the sequestration of their property. In the first national Assembly the Order of St. John of Jerusalem was only regarded as a foreign sovereign possessing property in France, and as such, liable to the taxes imposed throughout the country: the appearance of justice was thus preserved; the next blow was a decree of the Legislative Assembly in reference to *equality*, namely, that every Frenchman who was a member of the Order of Knighthood, which required *proofs of nobility*, should no longer be regarded as a French citizen; the third act in the drama was the decree of the 19th September, 1792, which determined that the Order of Malta should be entirely annulled, and *all its property annexed to the demesnes of France*¹! This decree had

¹ Perhaps this confiscation was accelerated from the order having listened to the application of Louis XVI. for pecuniary aid, and having sent that monarch, previous to his flight to Varennes, bills for 500,000 French livres.

no sooner passed than the estates were seized on and desolated—the houses of the commanders ransacked and plundered—the knights pursued as if they were wild beasts—and many of them thrown into the dungeons which were termed places of “*public safety*,” where the axe of the executioner remained suspended over their heads. Notwithstanding this conduct, the knights remained neutral in the wars with which the French nation were engaged; and a temporary aid was afforded them by the Emperor of Russia restoring to them their property in Poland, and becoming Protector of the Order; but the death of Rohan, and the sequestration of their property in Spain and Italy, was a final blow to their strength and independence.

Although at the congress of Rastadt, the French professed the most pacific intentions towards Malta, their views were secretly directed to its forcible occupation; intriguing emissaries were sent into the island, and every effort made to sow dissensions among the different classes of the inhabitants. Buonaparte knowing the strength of the place, sent Admiral Brueys with a fleet of eighteen sail of men of war to Malta; but previously dispatched a sixty gun ship and a xebeque, which approached Fort St Elmo, pretending a leak, and requesting permission to enter and repair in a neutral port at amity with the republic.

The request was unsuspectingly granted, and the ship remained eight days in port pretending to refit, but really reconnoitering and sounding in boats the

harbour and coasts around. The admiral ascertaining that the forts were well provided with artillery and manned, thought it prudent to depart, previously however thanking the Grand Master for his friendly conduct, and assuring him of the pacific intentions of the French government; the Minister of Marine at Paris, the better to blind the purposes of the republic, returned official thanks on the occasion, and yet within a very few months, the Directory shamelessly declared that Malta had been regarded as the enemy of France ever since the year 1792. On the evening of the 6th June, the first division of the French fleet appeared off Malta; the knights prepared for defence; in the midst of their treachery, the French expressed their surprise that any alarm should be felt, while at the same time secret emissaries were preparing the elements of disaffection and distrust in the island; on the 9th the remainder of the grand army and fleet destined for Egypt, appeared under Buonaparte, who immediately sent to the Grand Master (Hompesch) to demand *the free entry of all the ports for the whole of the fleet and convoy!* This of course would have been virtually a pacific surrender of the island, and the Grand Master accordingly refused; the designs of Buonaparte were now evident, and preparations were made for a defence, which, if it had not been for the treachery of several of the knights (Ransijat in particular), the tumults of the people in consequence of this treachery, and the indecision and incapacity of the Grand Master—would have been successful; suffice it to say, that with scarcely a struggle, and while the defenders of an impregnable fortress

were fighting amongst themselves and slaying each other, Buonaparte, with a mere display of force, and by bribery and deceit, became master of the island of Malta. The following were the terms of the capitulation, every article of which was almost instantly violated by the French, except the first.

Article 1.—The Knights of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem shall give up the city and forts of Malta to the French army: at the same time renouncing in favour of the French Republic, all right of property and sovereignty over that island, together with those of Gozo and Comino.

Article 2.—The French Republic shall employ all its credit at the Congress of Rastadt, to procure a principality for the Grand Master for life, equivalent to the one he gives up; and the said Republic engages to pay him in the meantime an annual pension of 300,000 French livres, besides two annats of the pension, by way of indemnification for his personals. He shall also be treated with the usual military honours during the whole of his stay in Malta.

Article 3.—The French Knights of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, actually resident in Malta, if acknowledged as such by the Commander-in-chief, shall be permitted to return to their own country, and their residence in Malta shall be considered in the same light as if they inhabited France. The French Republic will likewise use its influence with the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Helvetian Republics, that this third article may remain in force for the knights of those several nations.

Article 4.—The French Republic shall make over an annual pension of 700 French livres to each knight now resident in Malta for life, and 1000 livres to those whose ages exceed sixty years. It shall also endeavour to induce the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman, and Helvetian Republics, to grant the same pension to the knights of their respective countries.

Article 5.—The French Republic shall employ its credit with the different powers, that the knights of each nation may be

allowed to exercise their right over the property of the Order of Malta, situated in their dominions.

Article 6.—The knights shall not be deprived of their private property either in Malta or in Gozo.

Article 7.—The inhabitants of the islands of Malta and Gozo shall be allowed, the same as before, the free exercise of the Catholic, Apostolical, and Roman religion: their privileges and property shall likewise remain inviolate, and they shall not be subject to any extraordinary taxes.

Article 8.—All civil acts passed during the government of the Order, shall still remain valid.

Done and concluded on board the *Orient*, off Malta, on the 24th Prairial, the sixth year of the French Republic, (12th June, 1798.)

Buonaparte,
(L. s.)

The Commander Bosredon Ransijat.

The Baron Mario Testaferrata; Doctor G. N. Muscat; Doctor Benoit Schembri; Counsellor F. Feodoro Bonanni;—all Maltese.

The Bailiff de Turin Frisari, without prejudice to the right of dominion which belongs to my Sovereign the King of the two Sicilies.

Chev. Philippe de Amat, the Spanish Chargé d'Affaires.

(L. s.)

The forces belonging to the Order before the capitulation consisted of 200 French knights, 90 Italian, 25 Spanish, 8 Portuguese, 4 German, and 5 Anglo Bavarian,—total 332, (of whom 50 were disabled by age and infirmities.) The Maltese regiment, 700 men, the Grand Master's guards, 200, battalion belonging to the men of war, 400, ditto of Gallies, 300, old gunners, 100, militia embodied as Chasseurs, 1200,

sailors belonging to the men of war who acted as gunners, 1200, militia, 3000;—total, 7100. The militia might be increased to 10,000, all Maltese, capable of bearing arms. Against this force Buona- parte might well have been astonished that his triumph had been so bloodless, the greatest quantity shed being that of the knights who perished during a massacre by the Maltese, which I am informed¹ was owing to the discovery of the latter as regards the treachery which the knights had practised in giving up the place to the French, and on finding that the cartridges distributed to the soldiery were filled up with charcoal, and slightly topped with gun- powder, confusion and contradiction in the issue of orders, artillery with rotten carriages, knights with tri-coloured cockades and flags, &c. The disciples of liberty and equality were no sooner in possession of Malta, than they commenced evincing their distaste for the latter, by destroying every thing which bore any stamp of nobility; beautiful statues and paintings which had escaped the ravaging hand of several centuries of time, were mercilessly broken and burnt because they recorded the chivalrous deeds of the descendants of a long line of nobility. One of the first acts of the treacherous² occupiers of Malta, and in

¹ By N. Mitrovitch.

² I should have previously mentioned, that, when the occupation of Malta was commenced, pretended Greek gallies, with experienced French soldiers on board disguised as sailors, were sent into the harbour as if laden with grain, but having beneath arms and ammunition for the supply of the disaffected, whom it was hoped would join the French.

violation of the treaty of capitulation, was an order for all the knights to quit the island in three days. On the second day the friends and promoters of "*liberty and equality*," evinced still further their regard for those high-sounding terms; Buonaparte sent a general press-gang into every port of the island, and all the sailors, the Grand Master's guards, and the enrolled soldiery, &c. were compelled to go on board the French fleet, leaving their families in a state of utter destitution. The third step was to seize on any of the Grand Master and knights' tangible private property, which would contribute towards defraying the expenses of the municipal government, or enrich the new authorities.

Buonaparte quitted Malta on the 19th June, 1798, leaving a garrison of 4000 men in the island, under General Vaubois, and carrying away with him whatever ornaments in gold or silver could readily be obtained from the public edifices and churches.

When the Maltese learned the intelligence of the total destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir, the hope of destroying their tyrants (now strengthened to 6000 by the remnants that escaped from Egypt), was felt, and five days after the insurrection broke out. On the 2nd September, 1798, some French officers were dispatched to Città Vecchia (the old capital of the island before Valetta was built, and distant from it about seven miles), and while they were employed in removing certain articles from one of the churches, the people assembled, fell upon them, put to death the commander, and the whole detach-

ment afterwards met the same fate. This was the signal for a general insurrection of the whole of the inhabitants of the country; and such was the resolution and enthusiasm of the people, that almost without arms and ammunition, they obliged the French troops to shut themselves up in Valetta. The principal leaders of the Maltese were the Canon Caruana, now Bishop of Malta, Signor Vincenzo Borg, of Bircarcara, and Signor Vitale. The garrison of Valetta consisted of between 4000 and 5000 regular troops, besides the crews of two frigates and a line-of-battle-ship; together between 6000 and 7000 men. The French made several sorties, but were repulsed by the Maltese, who kept them closely blockaded. On the 18th September the Portuguese fleet, under the Marquis di Rizza, appeared off the island, and the Maltese chiefs having immediately concerted with the Admiral, he supplied them with a few muskets and some ammunition. On the 24th September a part of the English fleet, returning from Egypt, under Sir James Saumarez, appeared off Malta; as also did Lord Nelson, on the 24th October. The English furnished the Maltese inhabitants with 1500 muskets and some ammunition, and left with them Sir Alexander Ball, who was chosen by the people as President of the National Council, to which they then gave the name of Congress. For the long period of sixteen months, the Maltese continued to blockade Valetta, without any aid from foreign troops, inflicting loss and disgrace to the French troops whenever they attempted to make a sortie from the walls; when, in

December, 1799, a small body of British troops (1300), under General Graham, now Lord Lynedoch, and two Neapolitan battalions (900), arrived in the island. The 30th and 89th regiments were the first troops which arrived in Malta from Messina. The latter was commanded by Lord Blaney; and one of the companies was commanded by an active and intelligent officer, the present Adjutant General, Sir John M'Donald.

The blockade continued until the 4th September, 1800¹, when the French being quite exhausted, surrendered to General Pigot, who had taken the command of the troops of the siege. The garrison was indeed reduced to such extremity during a strict blockade, exceeding two years, that the horses and mules were killed for the use of the sick in the hospitals. Those of the inhabitants who had interest enough in the medical department to obtain for invalid members of their families a small portion of liver, or other viscus, thought themselves fortunate. A flight of quails passing over Valetta, enabled General Vaubois, with the aid of a good cook, to furnish the commissioners (who were sent in to treat for the

¹ The following is a list of the ships which formed the blockade of Malta:—*Northumberland*, 74, Captain Martin; *Genereux*, 74, Captain Dixon; *Stately* (en flute), 64, Captain Scott; *Charon* ditto, 44, Captain Bridges; *Princess Charlotte*, 38, Capt. Stevenson; *Pallas* (en flute), 38, Captain Edwards; *Penelope*, 36, Captain Blackwood; *Santa Theresa*, 36, Captain Campbell; *Success*, 32, Captain Peard; *Niger* (en flute), 32, Captain Hillger; *Champion*, 24, Captain Lord W. Stuart; *Bonne Citoyenne*, 18, Captain Buchannan; *Port Mahon*, 16, Captain Jackson; *Vincelo*, 16, Captain Long; *Minorca*, 16, Captain Miller; *Strombolo*, Bomb, 8, Captain Thompson.

surrender), with an excellent dinner of two courses, of what they supposed to be every variety of meat. After the capitulation was completed, some surprise was expressed by our commissioners at the French General's table being supplied with such a variety of excellent dishes at a time when it was believed the resources of the garrison were reduced to a moderate allowance of bread only. The General then confessed that they were chiefly indebted for such good fare to the fortuitous accident of a pair of quails being taken on the terraces that day, which, with some tame rabbits, was the only animal food on the table¹.

On the departure of the French, the British provisionally occupied Valetta, and Sir A. Ball administered the government of Malta as Civil Commissioner.

By the treaty of Amiens it was proposed to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem,² with, however, an admission that the Maltese were to form a language of the order without proofs of nobility being requisite, together with other privileges not before possessed by the Maltese when formerly under the government of the knights.

¹ For full details of the siege, and the subsequent events, &c., see large edition of this work, vol. v.

² Lord Carysfort, in a letter to Lord Elgin, dated Berlin, 29th November, 1800, states, that the French offered Malta to Russia a short time previous to its capitulation. The refusal of England to give up Malta to Russia, was the main cause of the latter laying an embargo on English vessels in 1800. The Emperor Paul's hostility to England was induced by French intrigues. The forfeit of his life was the result.

The intelligence of re-establishing the order of St. John of Jerusalem was certainly not received with joy by the Maltese, who sought the blessings of free institutions, and a restoration of their ancient commercial opulence under the protection of Great Britain; and for the sake of internal tranquillity it is fortunate for the island that the restoration did not take place; indeed, the necessity of continuing the order of St. John under the altered circumstances of the age was less than doubtful; and the main object of the French, in designing to restore the order in Malta, was with a view of still keeping a hold on that strong island, as shown by the Maltese themselves in a memorial on the occasion, when protesting against the re-occupation of the island by the knights¹.

The restoration of the order was not effected², though Russia was very desirous, as well as France, that such should have been the case; and, indeed, St. Petersburg had been the head-quarters of the knights since their expulsion from Malta; the island, therefore, became a portion of the British empire, not by conquest, but by the voice of the Maltese themselves, who, by their bravery in defending themselves against the French, showed themselves fully entitled to grant the sovereignty of their country to those only who possessed their confidence.

Mr. Cameron was appointed Civil Commissioner, and was succeeded by Sir Alexander Ball, who, dying,

¹ See vol. v. large edition of this work.

² Efforts are now making to restore at least the British language of the order, and Mr. Broun has issued an interesting and admirably executed brochure on the subject.

the island had, in 1809, General, afterwards Sir Hildebrand Oakes, as chief, until 1813, when Sir Thomas Maitland arrived as the first British Governor of Malta. Sir Thomas died in 1824, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Hastings, who, dying in 1826, was succeeded by General Ponsonby, the present amiable, gallant, and much respected Governor.

CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — VALETTA — FORTIFICATIONS, &c.—GOZO, COMINOTTA, AND COMINETTO, &c.—GEOLOGY, SOIL, &c.—CLIMATE AND DISEASES.

MALTA, the most southerly island in Europe¹, is in the parallel (Valetta Observatory) of $35^{\circ} 53'$ north, and in the meridian of $14^{\circ} 30' 35''$ east of Greenwich. The shape is an irregular oval, which has been compared by some to a fish—its southern aspect resembling the back, the bay of Marsa Sirocco the mouth, the various indentations on the north aspect the ventral fins, and the deep indentation of the bay of Melleha, with a corresponding indentation at the back of the island, the tail;—the island, in fact, stretches east and west, and is much indented with bays and inlets of the sea on the side which corresponds with the coast of Sicily,

¹ The island was formerly placed by all geographers in Africa, but was declared to be in Europe, as regards the service of our soldiery, by a British act of Parliament.

while that which looks towards the African coast is nearly a continued curve.

The extreme length of the island is stated by Dr. Hennen at eighteen to twenty miles, and its greatest breadth from north to south ten to twelve miles, and circumference sixty to seventy; but a chart of the islands under the British crown, furnished me from the Colonial Office¹, makes the extreme length sixteen and three quarter miles, extreme breadth nine, with an area of ninety-five square miles. The same document makes Gozo (the island adjacent to Malta, and under the same government) nine and three quarter miles extreme length, five and one-third breadth, with an area of twenty-seven square miles. Malta is distant from Cape Passaro, the nearest point of Sicily², north, fifty-six miles, and Cape Bon, the nearest point of the African continent, is almost two hundred miles distant in a south-west direction. It is bounded on the east by the island of Candia, on the west by the islets of Pantelleria, Linosa, and Lampedusa, on the north by Sicily, and on the south by Tripoli. The sea dividing Malta from Sicily is only eighty fathoms deep in the middle or deepest part,

¹ Another estimate will be found under the head of *Agriculture*.

² The following, according to Captain Smyth, are the bearings and distances between several points on the south coast of Sicily and Malta:—From Cape Passaro to Valetta, south $33^{\circ} 14'$ west, 56 miles; Alicata to ditto, $21^{\circ} 55'$ east, $75\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Terra Nova to ditto, $10^{\circ} 40'$, 70 miles; Girgenti to ditto, $30^{\circ} 03'$, 90 miles; Sciacca to ditto, $35^{\circ} 51'$, 118 miles; Cape Granitola to ditto, $42^{\circ} 32'$, 136 miles; Maretimo to ditto, $42^{\circ} 45'$, 173 miles.

very shallow in other places, and the bottom sandy: it is called the Canal of Malta, and is generally rough, with strong currents setting through it on the north-west side towards the east-south-east, and on the east-south-east side towards the east. Gozo Isle, originally known under the name of "*Gaulos*" by the Greeks, "*Gaulum*" by the Romans, and by corruption in the Arabic language "*Gaudese*," which in process of time was Italianized into Gozo (pronounced Godso), is situate on the westward of Malta, distant from thence in its nearest point about three miles, though some parts of the strait is five miles broad. In the channel lies the small islet of Comino, formerly called "*Hephostia*," of an oblong shape, and about five miles in circumference, with a still smaller islet or rock called *Cominetto*, off its north-west extremity. Malta, comparatively speaking, is low, the highest land being estimated at no more than 1200 feet above the level of the sea, and cannot be discerned until the mariner approaches within twenty to thirty miles of the shore. The hill and dale surface is beautifully diversified, and the natural industry of the Maltese has converted an apparently barren rock into a very picturesque country. As a general feature, it may be observed, that the island is furrowed with valleys running from south-west to north-east, parallel to each other, and becoming longer and deeper as they extend from the eastern and western extremity. One, termed Melleha, nearly divides Malta into two parts; the most fertile, however, is the vale, which forms at its lowest extremity the Port of Valetta.

A small range of hills and craggy rocks, called the Ben Jemma Hills, bearing a north-west direction from Valetta, stretch across the entire breadth of the island, and from these different spurs branch off, giving variety to the landscape. The southern shore consists of high or shelving rocks, without creeks or ports, or where a landing could be effected. To the east there is the port of Marsa (*Marsa*, in Arabic, signifies port or harbour) Scala, and towards the south-west that of Marsa Sirocco, capable of containing a great number of vessels. On the west there are two bays, called Antifaga and Magiarro.

The port of St. Paul is on the coast opposite Sicily, and is so called from a tradition that the vessel in which St. Paul was sent prisoner to Rome was driven in thither by a storm. St. George's Port, towards the north, is not far distant from that of St. Paul; St. Julian's Bay is on the same shore.

Directly facing Cape Passaro are the two most considerable ports; that to the left termed Marsa Musceit, in the midst of which is a small island where quarantine is performed; the other, situate to the east, is called the Great Harbour¹. These two are

¹ The following are the measurements of some of the principal points between Valetta and the grand and quarantine harbours. The mouth of the great harbour between Ricasoli and St. Elmo, from shore to shore, 435 yards; between Fort St. Angelo and the Marina of Valetta, from St. Angelo Point to the shore below the statue of Neptune, 350 yards; between Isola Point and the Custom-house, 360 yards; between Corradino Point and the Marina, from the Ordnance Store to the Guard-house, 422 yards; between the church of the Capuchin convent and the causeway which bounds the Marsa, 1064 yards.

separated by a tongue of land, on which the city of Valetta is built, the extreme point having on it the castle of St. Elmo, which defends the entrance of both ports. Projecting into the Great Harbour are two parallel points of land, shaped somewhat like two fingers: on one is built the Castle of St. Angelo, nearest the entrance of the port, with the Burgh (*il Borgo*) to the eastward; on the other equally small peninsula is the fortress of *La Sangle*, which divides the *Galley Port* from the *French Port*. Fort St. Michael is on the land side, and defends the two ports of *La Sangle*.

Città Vittoriosa, or *Borgo*, is built on the same point of land as the Castle of St. Angelo, but separated from it by a wet ditch. It has a line of works on its land front, extending from the Galley Port to Calcara Bay.

La Sangle, or *Isola*, is built on the other point of land, having its land front covered in a similar manner to that of Vittoriosa, by a line of works extending from the Galley Port to the French Port.

More in the rear of *La Sangle* than St. Angelo is the city of *Cospicua*, or *Burmola*, commanded by St. Margaret's Hill, on which is a fort of the same name,

The mouth of the quarantine harbour, between Fort Tigné and Fort St. Elmo, from shore to shore, 404 yards; from the Lazzaretto island to Valetta, from shore to shore, 265 yards. The harbour is so deep, that the largest ships of war can anchor in almost every part of it between the mouth and Corradino Point; from that part it gets shallow, until at the causeway at the Marsa the depth does not exceed two feet from the surface of the water to the soft mud.

and covered to the eastward by a continued line of works, called Fiorenzola. Still further in the rear, and forming a crescent, joined at either end to La Sangle and St. Angelo fortifications, are the strong Cotoner lines, consisting of a succession of bastions without any advanced works, which were intended to be effected, but circumstances prevented their completion. By sweeping round the French Port to Calcara Bay, towards the interior of the country, a considerable space is left in front of the St. Margarita lines, which is intended to afford shelter to the inhabitants in the event of the island being attacked. The two points of land which jut out to meet the promontory on which St. Elmo Castle is built, are also strongly fortified. The *one*, Fort Ricasoli, which is very large, but irregularly built, this, in conjunction with Fort St. Elmo, defends completely the entrance of the Great Harbour; the *other*, Fort Tigné, protects Marsa Musceit Harbour, which is also further guarded by Fort Manoel, which is built on the quarantine island before adverted to. This fort is regularly and beautifully built, has five bastions, a half moon, and a covert-way: it is mined.

In addition to these powerful works, Valetta is effectually protected on the southward or land side, where the neck of the peninsula joins the main, by the fortifications termed *La Floriana*, a line of works extending from the great Port to that of Marsa Musceit, and in advance of which, on the side near the great Port, there is a beautiful crowned horn-work, with a covered way.

The *Floriana* constitute five successive lines, any

one of which, well manned, would be sufficient for defence. The ditches in some instances are ninety feet deep, and excavated in the solid rock; the greater part of the ramparts being in like manner formed by hewing the rocks into the required shapes. Thus Valetta city is protected on three sides by the waters of the harbour, which no hostile fleet could enter without being immediately blown to atoms: the batteries of St. Angelo, for instance, rising in four tiers of very heavy metal, a single discharge from which would sink the largest vessel. The entrance to the port is still further secured by an enormous chain or chains, capable of resisting the shock of any force that may be brought to bear on them.

These extraordinary, and, it may be added, impregnable works, are the result of continued and unremitting exertions for upwards of two centuries, as shown by the following data:—

- 1551. Vittoriosa fortified. Fort St. Elmo built.
- 1554. Isola fortified. New works added to Vittoriosa. New works added to Fort St. Elmo.
- 1556. La Valetta commenced.
- 1571. La Valetta finished.
- 1636. Floriana works commenced.
- 1657. Towns built along the coast.
- 1670. New works added to Floriana. Cottoner lines commenced. Fort Ricasoli commenced.
- 1686. Fort St. Elmo rebuilt. The Castle of St. Angelo considerably strengthened.
- 1722. Fort Manoel commenced.
- 1749. Fort Chambray (in Gozo) commenced.
- 1796. Fort Tigné commenced.

The old city stands upon a hill which overlooks the whole country as far as La Valetta ; it has a front, with a ditch and covered way. Above the top of the hills which cross the island and separate the inhabited and cultivated parts of Malta from the remainder, a wall five feet thick was erected by the knights as a retreat for the troops to fall back on if unable to prevent the landing of an enemy. Forts and batteries were also erected at ports St. Paul and Marsa Sirocco, which would place a vessel attempting to anchor under a cross fire ; and towers and redoubts were erected along the whole coast in such a manner as to communicate almost immediately with each other.

The lines also are of immense strength, enclosing the various quarters of the capital for the space of a square mile and a half, and forming works of such extent and intricacy, that it is said 25,000 men would be required to man them in their full extent, when they might well be deemed impregnable. The French had but 6000 men to defend them, and yet could only be reduced by famine. Upwards of 1000 pieces of cannon were mounted on all the works, and Buona- parte entertained so confirmed an opinion of the strength of the place, that when he was asked on his departure for Egypt to give instructions relative to the defence of the garrison and fortifications, he told the officer in command (Vaubois) *to lock the gates and put the key in his pocket.*

In fine, it may be said that Malta is as defensible as nature and art combined can render it. To sit down regularly before Valetta and its surrounding fortifications would require a well appointed army of

many thousand men ; and if the fortress were well manned and provided, there can be no estimate formed of the time it would hold out, as the besiegers, in addition to their land forces, ought to be able to blockade the port and command the dominion of the Mediterranean.

La Valetta, the modern and chief city of the island, founded by the celebrated Grand Master of that name in 1566, and completed in 1571, may be considered one of the finest towns in Europe ; the kings of France, Spain, and Portugal, the Pope, and all the knights who resided out of Malta, having contributed munificently towards its erection. The neck of land or promontory on which it stands (originally called *Mount Sceberras*) divides the main harbour (*Great Port*) from Marsa Musceit haven, where the shipping perform quarantine. The neck is estimated at 3200 yards long, by 1200 broad, descending by a gradual slope. Its whole length, from the land barrier at the southern extremity to the point of St. Elmo, which terminates in the Mediterranean in a narrow point of about 300 yards, bearing north-east by north, on which point the citadel and lighthouse of St. Elmo are built. The centre of this neck of land is its highest point, whence it gradually slopes to the water's edge at either side. The longer streets, eight in number, run in parallel lines along this ridge or "hog's back" from south to north, or, more strictly speaking, from south-south-west to north-north-east, and are intersected by shorter streets, eleven in number, which run from one harbour to another up the sides of the ridge. Besides these regular streets, rows of houses

front the works all round, a carriage space being left between them. The thoroughfares afford an excellent means of ventilation, while the gradual descent towards the sea on all sides facilitates the removal of all nuisances. The public buildings and private dwellings are of a very superior order, the latter being inferior to those of no other city. The houses are of solid stone, with flat or terraced roofs, composed of stone slabs, covered over with a thick bed of "terras," or "puzzolana," so as to be impenetrable to rain, and, as in Calcutta and other parts of the east, affording a cool and agreeable morning and evening promenade. Very little wood is employed, the staircases, floors, &c. being of stone. The lower parts of the houses are used for shops, stores, or habitations for the poorer classes. Between the ground and first floor is a "mezzanino" or middle floor, rarely exceeding seven or eight feet in height, and frequently used as bed-rooms or eating apartments; the principal suite of apartments being on the first floor. Each house has generally a court, with a tank or large well, and into this court the apartments of the principal chambers look. A house fit for a moderate family, containing twelve or fourteen apartments, may be rented at 20*l.* per annum, and an equally commodious house and garden in the country for half that sum. The paving and lighting of Valetta are excellent: the principal streets are formed with flags cut out of the hardest pieces of native stone, or with blocks of lava from Mount Etna, and a regularly raised footway runs on either side. Water is supplied by means of an aqueduct (17,000 yards long) before mentioned,

the quantity introduced being fifty-eight gallons per minute. In order to extend the supply of this indispensable aliment, every house is furnished with a tank, into which baked earthen pipes convey the rain water from the flat roofs, and wells and cisterns are sunk in every possible situation. The buildings appropriated for Government are admirable, and the palace of the Governor is suited for the residence of a crowned head.

Amongst the great number of edifices which greatly contribute to the ornament of the capital, the first place is due to the church, or, as they call it, the Con-cathedral of St. John. This magnificent building was erected by the Grand Master La Cassière, and successively enriched with great profusion by the untiring devotion of the Maltese. The knights of the different nations, or, as they were named, *languages*, had in this church their respective chapels. Every compartment of the roof, between the pillars of the chapels, is ornamented with a picture representing the principal events of the life of St. John; the greater part of them are incomparably fine. The pavement is composed of sepulchral stones of inlaid marble of different colours; several monuments have also been erected between the pillars and in various places of the church; and for the richness and grandeur of their structures they stand unrivalled, some of them being encrusted with jasper, agate, and many other similar stones. The principal altar is placed in the middle of the choir, beyond which is a group in marble representing the baptizing of our Saviour. Before the deplorable invasion of the French army,

the treasury of this church possessed a great number of articles extremely valuable, not only on account of the preciousness of the matter, but also for their antiquity and workmanship. Unfortunately none of them were spared by the rapacity of the invaders.

The other most remarkable buildings in this ancient city, are the palace of the Grand Masters, the lodges of the different languages, the conservatory, the university, the treasury, the palace of justice, the hospital, the public bank (Monte di Pietà), the barracks, the royal theatre, and the exchange. The architecture of all these structures is chiefly distinguished by two qualities generally to be found in the Maltese constructions; the one an exquisite taste in the composition of the general subjects, and the other a noble plainness in the arrangement of single parts. The front of the provençal lodge, that of Castille, and that of the conservatory are the most notable for their style of architecture. One part of the latter edifice serves for the public library, which contains about a 100,000 volumes. Another very useful library, though not so vast, has been established in another part of the same building: it bears the name of the garrison library, and is of great utility to its numerous readers, by the readiness with which books are obtained, without the least inconvenience. Next to the library is an extensive museum, divided into several rooms, each containing a great variety of interesting objects, such as a large collection of medals, several vases, the antiquities of the island, ancient marbles, &c.

The body of the hospital consists of several large

airy apartments, and immense storehouses, capable of containing a great number of patients. During the government of the Grand Masters, the sick had all the utensils employed in their service of silver, but of such plain workmanship as sufficiently proved that they were adopted from a motive of cleanliness, and not as objects of luxury.

The Grand Master's palace, now the residence of the governor, is an immense square pile of building externally unornamented, but of an imposing appearance. The apartments are large and convenient, and everywhere enriched with splendid furniture, beautiful pictures, hangings, and damasks. There is here also a great collection of arms of all kinds, arranged with the utmost precision and remarkable good taste. The arsenal is another respectable establishment: it was formerly of the greatest importance under the grand-mastership of the order; but it owes its late enlargement to the British government. Another structure, at present suspended, but which the Maltese earnestly hope to see finally brought to a completion, is the excavation of a vast basin for the expeditious refitting of ships. A work, the general convenience of which may be instantly perceived, deserves the special attention of government.

The barracks and hospitals are numerous, and an idea of their substantial structure may be formed from the fact, that the lower floors of the barracks are formed frequently on the surface of the quarries, whence the stone has been mined for the construction of the fortifications, while the lower parts of the walls are merely the rock perpendicularly scarped. The

barracks or casements are all bomb-proof; ventilation is kept up by long galleries and large doors of communication; the heat of summer is little felt in such barracks, the supply of water to which is copious, and the facilities for sea bathing and exercise admirable. A great many monuments are enclosed in the circuit of the ramparts, which are never visited by an Englishman without emotion: namely those of—Sir Ralph Abercrombie, Sir Alexander Ball, Sir Thomas Maitland, the Marquis of Hastings, Admiral Hotham, Sir Robert Spencer, and others illustrious in British history.

The casals, or towns, or villages scattered throughout the island are neatly and strongly built; the old capital of Città Vecchia, or *Notabile*, is antique in structure and appearance. It preserves among the natives its ancient name of *Medina*, and is still remarkable as the seat of the bishoprick; it contains the palace of the first Grand Masters, and also the cathedral of Malta, adjoining which is an excellent college. The chief curiosity is the celebrated catacombs, an extensive labyrinth of subterranean streets crossing each other in every direction; they are cut in the rock at a depth of about 15 feet below the surface; and the number of passages and corridors is so great and so regular that it may well be called a subterranean city,

The famed grotto of St. Paul is not far distant, and consists of a large cave, divided into three separate parts by iron grates: in the furthest part from the entrance is a beautiful statue of St. Paul, of white marble. A part of the cave resembles the nave of a

church, and is constantly covered with a surprising degree of vegetation.

The roads are generally good, and extend to all parts of the island, so as to admit of easy access by mules, asses, horses, carts and caleches or single horse carriages; and communications by water are also free, safe and cheap, hundreds of commodious boats keeping up a constant intercourse between the cities on each side of the harbour, while boats of a larger class ply regularly to Gozo and Sicily.

Gozo (or *Gaudisch*, as the natives call it),¹ as before observed, is separated from Malta by an arm of the sea, four to five miles wide; with an average length of eight miles, by six broad, and twenty in circumference; although fertile and thickly inhabited, it contains no town, the inhabitants being scattered in six villages, protected by a strong fort, *Rabato*, in the centre of the island. The surface of the island is very agreeably diversified with hill and dale, some of the more elevated parts in the north-west being nearly 2000 feet above the sea. A chain of these elevations encircle the island, embracing a beautiful series of fertile valleys, separated by gently rising grounds; the summits of some of the mountains are flattened, and truly table lands; others are rounded or mammillary; and there are four or five remarkable detached hills, perfectly conical in shape, and presenting the appearance of old volcanic productions. The interior of the island and its shores abound in caves and rocks,

¹ The name was supposed to be given from its imaginary resemblance to a cup; the real shape is an irregular oval.

being of the same calcareous nature as those of Malta, but the country is much more rural and agreeable.

Fort Chambray, commenced in 1749, contains the principal accommodation for troops; it lies on the south-east side of the island, and is built upon an elevated promontory, forming one side of a little bay in which the Malta boats anchor; the shore all round is very bold, especially to the south, where it rises into rugged and inaccessible cliffs, with huge masses of rock broken off from them and projecting into the sea; the road gradually winds from the sea to the fort (which is 500 feet above the shore) after a circuit of about 700 yards; the area on which the fortification is built being about 2500 feet in circumference. The barracks accommodate 250 men, are admirably arranged, and there is a small but excellent hospital attached.

The lieutenant governor resides near Migiarro, a small and insecure port, but the only one which the island possesses. A constant intercourse is kept up with Malta, the distance to Valetta by sea being eighteen miles, although the two islands are within four miles of each other. The oblong islet of Comino, two miles in length, lying between the larger islands, has a few inhabitants, employed in cultivating about thirty acres of land, and in preserving the numerous rabbits with which the island abounds.

Besides Cominetto, which lies off the north-west end of Comino, there are four or five other islets, or rather rocks, belonging to Malta and Gozo. On the south coast of Malta is Filfolà, or Filfla, which contains, it is said, an ancient parish church; nearer the

shore, and more to the eastward, is a rock called the Pietra Nera; and at the north-west end of the island, towards Gozo, is another rock, called the Scoglio Marfo. At the north end of St. Paul's Bay is the Island of Salmonetta, but the best known of these appendages is the fungus rock of Gozo, or "*Hagirtal general*," celebrated for its production of *Corallina Officinalis* (Linnæus), or fungus melitensis, so long, (at one time) esteemed as a sovereign panacea for all the ills that flesh is heir to.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The commissioners sent by the Grand Master l'Isle Adam, in 1525, to examine Malta previous to its acceptance from Charles V. by the knights, described it as a rock, six or seven leagues long, of sandstone, called *tufa*; the structure is now ascertained to be limestone of different species and of unequal density, though generally speaking remarkably soft, and crumbling down even under the action of the weather with great facility. Calcareous freestone is more or less abundant, limestone generally lying on the freestone, and the latter incumbent on a bed of marl. Geologically considered Malta and Gozo belong to the tertiary aqueous formations, either to the older or the newer phocene of Lyall.

The stone of Malta, in relation to architectural purposes, is of two kinds principally, viz.: the hard and soft, of each of which there are many varieties; indeed the one passes into the other by an almost insensible gradation.

The hard stone is a species of coarse marble of crystalline structure, of specific gravity 2.5,—not absorbent of moisture, and not liable to decompose or

disintegrate on exposure to the atmosphere. It consists almost entirely of carbonate of lime. It is well adapted to all works requiring strength, and particularly well fitted for pavements and floors. It is found in many parts of the island, generally near the surface.

The soft stone is a kind of free-stone, composed chiefly of carbonate of lime, of a variable though small proportion of alumine, and a trace of peroxide of iron, to which it owes its light fawn colour. It is absorbent of water:—a specimen tried by Dr. Davy immersed in water gained eleven per cent. It is very light; the same specimen was of specific gravity 1.9.—It is so soft that it is most easily cut, almost as readily as chalk. It is far more abundant than the hard kind. It is the common building stone, and is very durable if protected from the atmosphere; the purest kinds, are those which contain least clay, and are least liable to disintegrate on exposure; when used for flooring it requires to be oiled or painted.

It may be remarked that to the absorbent power of the soft free-stone for water, the lands of Malta owe very much their fertility; and so sensible are the natives of it, that it is a common practice occasionally to remove the soil from the subjacent rock, and break up its surface to the depth of an inch or thereabouts, either generally or at intervals, in stripes; such a measure being found necessary in consequence of a deposition of carbonate of lime, which is apt to take place on the surface from the water percolating it, by which the minute pores are filled, and the rock, super-

ficially, is rendered more or less impervious, thus preventing the admission of rain water in the winter, and its escape in the dry season. The Maltese soft stone is said to be highly useful in the manufacture of the best china; the sediment of the deposition in water being collected and formed into a mould like bricks.

Dr. Hennen describes a species of stone, of the nature of the "Oalite" or "Roestone of Bath," which is principally employed in building: it is very general throughout the island, and so easily worked, that it can be cut with a hatchet or turned into various architectural ornaments in an appropriate apparatus, like an ordinary cutler's wheel; but if not judiciously used, it chips and exfoliates very rapidly. The masses are naturally laminated, and in buildings it is necessary to take care that the extremities of the laminæ and not their flat surface be presented to the action of the air. The sea air and the contact of sea water is peculiarly injurious to some of these stones: repeated exfoliations of a reticulated texture are thrown off from them until they are completely corroded, a process to be daily witnessed in those parts of the works about the harbour. This species, like the ordinary soft stone of Malta, is of a yellowish white colour, and so very impure, that, although it is carbonate of lime, it will not burn into quick lime, while the purer and harder carbonates afford a copious supply of this material, when subjected to the action of fire. By analysis made some years since by Dr. Naudi, professor of chemistry in the university, and a scientific English resident, it was found that alu-

mina and magnesia existed in quantity in this building stone—in the softer sort *magnesia* was prevalent,—and *alum* in the harder: thus we see why the old palace of Boschetto, which was built in the end of the fifteenth century, of the latter stone, is much less impaired than erections of a very modern date, in which the former stone has been employed.

Other species of stone, chiefly from the western side of the island, are very pure carbonates of lime, and so hard as to serve for pavements; some bear a high polish, and are employed for tables, chimney pieces, &c. &c., forming a pretty species of marble. This is principally found at St. Julian's on the western coast. Alabaster is also found in some parts of both Malta and Gozo, but especially the latter. At Marsa Sirocco, to the southward of the island, are found blocks in detached pieces, of a blackish and reddish calcareous stone like lava; when rubbed they exhale, by Dolomieu's account, a strong smell, and when dissolved in sulphuric acid, a black oily scum of a similar smell floats on the surface.

Gypsum, both spicular and cuneiform, is frequently seen. Iron pyrites are found in various clayey hills, especially in Gozo.

The *soil*, like the rock of Malta, is almost entirely calcareous: a specimen collected by Dr. Davy in a barley-field near Citta Vecchia, consisted of—91.0 carbonate of lime; 7.0 alumina, with a little siliceous sand and red oxide of iron; 1.5 vegetable matter; 0.5 hygrometric matter.

Considering the very small proportion of vegetable matter present in the soil, and the little humidity it

contains, or is capable of containing, it is extremely fertile. Dr. Davy thinks it probable that this happy fertility depends on two circumstances chiefly, the great proportion of carbonate of lime in the best state of mechanical division in the soil, and the porous nature of the rocky substratum, which absorbs the rain like a sponge, and permits, during the dry season, the slow exhalation of moisture.

In a communication which I recently received from Dr. Davy, while that gentleman was inspector of hospitals at Malta, he says that it is not commonly the practice to form soil by breaking up rock; soil ready formed, lying in the hollows and crevices of rocks, is collected; the crevices are filled up with fragments, the projecting rocks are removed, the surface is made as level as is easily practicable, and the soil collected is deposited on it: and thus, according to Carlo Giacinto, who has written an interesting little work on the agriculture of Malta, "*campi artificiali*" are formed. The soil of Malta is generally good as regards its quality, though in too many instances it is of little depth. Forty different specimens, collected in the neighbourhood of the different casals, on being examined, were found to be all composed principally of carbonate of lime; they varied chiefly in the proportion of clay, and in the proportion of peroxide of iron, to which they owe their colour. The dark red soils contained most of this oxide, and the largest proportion generally of alumine. The very light fawn-coloured abounded most in carbonate of lime, and contained only a just perceptible trace of the peroxide of iron. All the soils belonging to Malta,

and also to Gozo, may be considered as coming under the denomination of calcareous marls, and, with very few exceptions, fall to powder under the influence of water. In no instance did Dr. Davy meet with any siliceous soil, or any pure clay soil. The proportion of vegetable matter in the best soils is exceedingly minute, under one per cent.; much manuring is therefore required. The productiveness of the territory, and its crops, will be found under the head of cultivation.

No where in the island are there any traces of volcanic eruption, any hot springs (excepting two or three weak saline spas), or any trap rocks; portions of pumice are said to have been found in the free-stone of Gozo. Whether Malta and Gozo were at one time joined together, and at a more distant period in connection with Sicily, or otherwise, it is impossible to say positively; Dr. Davy thinks that the rocks and marls of both islands are very similar to the adjoining parts of Sicily, which are of the newer phocene, but organic remains in sufficient numbers have not been collected as yet to solve the question; however, to throw further light on this interesting subject, as also to convey a more ample idea of the islands, I subjoin the following view of their physical geography, as drawn up by one of the knights of Malta, named Dolomieu.

‘ These three islands are calcareous rocks, which furnish very few objects worthy the attention of a naturalist. Indeed some petrifications and calcareous concretions are the only fossil productions which deserve a place in a cabinet of natural history. But as

there is no single spot on the whole surface of the globe which does not afford some curious observations in cosmogony, nor even a heap of stones which has not some reference to the ancient history of our world, and which may not serve to give an idea of the theory of its original formation, the island of Malta, considered in that light, offers some interesting subjects deserving our attention.

Malta, Camino, and Gozo, are evidently only the remains of a large tract of land which extended towards the south south-west, and which, owing in all probability to the solidity of the soil, have resisted the violence that caused the destruction of the country, of which they originally made a part. Innumerable observations made on the spot, confirm this opinion, but at present it will be sufficient to prove the fact by some account of the physical formation of these islands.

Malta becomes much narrower at the same time that it lengthens; from east-south-east to west-north-west; the islands of Comino and Gozo are placed successively in the same direction, and are separated by narrow straits.

To have a just idea of Malta, we must figure to ourselves an inclined plane running from south-south-west to north-north-east, in such a manner that the calcareous strata (nearly parallel), of which it is almost entirely composed, rise towards the south and south-east nearly 200 fathoms above the sea, which dashes against the bottom of these declivities. At the same time on the opposite side they are of considerable length, and decline insensibly till they be-

come level with the sea. The direction of these strata, together with their exact correspondence with the opposite parts, consisting of defiles and valleys, evidently show what was the real shape of the island, when the strata deposited by the sea ceased to accumulate; even since that time it has undergone great vicissitudes. The regularity of this work has been changed, a great part of the upper stratum destroyed, and that vast body of regularly parallel strata so worn, hollowed and ploughed by the violence of the currents, that it is scarcely possible to trace—such is the disorder which reigns throughout the mountains, defiles, hills, and vales—the system which joins them together, and points out the origin of their formation.

The broadest part of the island, the least wasted and the flattest, though sufficiently elevated, is that to the east of the city of Valetta; it is consequently more peopled and easier cultivated, though here, as in all other places, the rock is entirely naked, except where the industry of the inhabitants has placed a layer of earth to encourage vegetation.

The principal defiles and valleys run constantly from south-south-west to north-east, which is their natural direction, for they have all been formed out of the rock by the violent currents of water washing from the heights. These valleys extend to that part of the sea where the coast is most level, and there form those fine ports which make this island so very important for trade and navigation. Smaller valleys have, in process of time, been formed, taking a contrary direction to the principal ones, and the united waters of these form the different ports which com-

municate with that of the city, which, with a gentle curve, extends into the valley of Marsa, of which it is a continuation.

This valley, now the broadest, the most extensive, and fertile in the whole island, was formerly almost entirely sea ; indeed, it is not very long since the tide came up as far as casal Fornaro, but the accretion of vegetable earth from the higher lands, the fragments of the surrounding rocks, the hand of the labourer, and above all, the influx of sand, &c., occasioned by the force of the sea when the wind is at north-east, have by degrees entirely filled it up. In a short time the bottom of the port will be equally filled, and might be still sooner, by making basins, into which the sea could be conveyed by dykes, and where, from its calm state, it would deposit that matter which is kept back when the water is greatly agitated. The basin in the midst of a small plain, called little Marsa, is already nearly choked up, and that without any means having been employed for the purpose.

The valleys are longer and deeper in proportion as they extend from east to west. One, very wide, extends itself under the casals of Musta, and Nasciaro, and Gargur, and terminates at the port of the salt works. It is bounded to the right by a chain of craggy rocks which runs across the whole breadth of the island, and divides it into two parts. This boundary, formed by the hand of nature, has been made the means of defence to Malta, by intrenchments formed in the rocks, and seems to be regarded as such by the inhabitants ; for beyond it, towards

the west there are no villages, and scarcely any cultivated land. The port or creek of Melleha penetrates so far into the inland country, that it almost divides the island, which is very narrow in that part, and there is every reason to believe that the straits which occasion Comino to be insular, are only the extension of two valleys, the upper of which has been destroyed; and such would be the state of the ports which flank the city of Valetta, if any circumstance should destroy the part of the island beyond Pieta and Casal Nuova.

Gozo stands much higher than Malta, and is entirely surrounded by perpendicular rocks: the highest are to the west and south, where they are tremendously steep. The opposite cliffs of Malta and Gozo are correspondent; but though there are some valleys in the same direction as those of Malta, they do not afford any ports, on account of the height of the land, and its breadth.

The country is not so uneven as at Malta, consequently more easily cultivated, and it appears that the surface was originally nearly horizontal. The rock, however, is decidedly of the same nature in both islands, which are equally mountainous, some single, some forming chains, the summits of which are, for the most part, flat. It is very evident that these summits made part of the original surface, when the whole was incrustated by a stratum of a harder and heavier kind of stone of a closer grain, which is now never met with but in that elevated land which corresponds with the inclination of the strata. Some strata are also formed of a black ferruginous calca-

reous sand, slightly stuck together by a kind of calcareous lime.

At the back of these rocks in Malta, and in the clefts of the mountains in Gozo, are heaps composed of grey clay, evidently no native of the soil, and which must have accumulated since the excavation of those mountains. It is found in hollows, which no doubt were formerly entirely empty. The above-mentioned heaps but feebly resisting the force of water rushing impetuously down their sides, the constant cataracts have made deep furrows in them, and modelled them into their present form.

On summing up the preceding facts, the question may be fairly asked, from whence came the clay of Malta and Gozo? How could it possibly have got over the craggy rocks of the latter island unless they had both been formerly joined to higher land, from whence this clay descended, or unless, by an imperceptible declivity, it had been driven by the sea into its present situation? Whence likewise came the red clay, a kind of virgin earth, which fills up the vertical clefts in the rocks? The water which formed these valleys must have been in great abundance, since it had sufficient force to wear away a rock, which though not very hard, must still have offered some degree of resistance.

This island, such as it is at present, could never have produced such considerable torrents, for after the heaviest rains in winter, there are scarcely more than some small temporary rivulets, and those in the lowest part of the valleys. The perpendicular rocks could not naturally have existed in a mass formed by

the successive accumulation of sand from the sea. The same strata which we perceive in these rocks must have extended till they had met with a declivity, or a curve to re-conduct them to a level with the bottom of the sea. There cannot be a doubt but that the island of Malta made formerly part of a mountain, which had the same declivities and valleys on the other side. The rocks, its boundaries to the south, east, and west, could have been formed only by the falling in and destruction of what made their sides, particularly as the sea is extremely deep at the basis of them. In the whole circumference of the three islands, evident marks of corrosion may be perceived. The rocks at some distance from the coast are the mere remains of that part which has been destroyed. In fine, the shape of these islands, all the local circumstances, and a variety of phenomena, decidedly prove that there must have been a great extent of land towards the south and west, and that it must have been destroyed by some very violent cause out of the common course of nature. It appears that this destructive shock came from the west, and that it acted with the greatest force against every thing adjoining to the island of Gozo. According to our knowledge of natural history, and the causes which produce such extraordinary effects, we can only attribute the present state of things to an immense body of water, which, being agitated by an earthquake, carried away the first land which it met with on its passage, by which means Gozo is become of a circular form, and clefts are excavated at the foot of the rocks which offered most resistance, such

as those which form Cape San Dimitri. It also destroyed that part of the mountain which united the three islands, and this inundation has stripped them of all vegetable earth, of which only some small patches remain in the clefts of rocks, where it was sheltered from the fury of the waves. The island of Gozo was so situated as to defend Malta, and by that means the northern coast has not undergone such changes as the southern. A variety of observations made in Sicily and Italy prove, that an extraordinary motion in that mass of water had taken place, and the most terrible effects were produced; but to enter into more minute particulars would interfere with the plan of this work.

The facts we have now pointed out may be known and verified by all who will attend to the circumstances; but what must still remain matter of conjecture, is the original extent of this land, its relation with the continent of Africa, and the time when the convulsion took place.

I believe, that since Malta was first inhabited, the island has in some degree diminished. This seems proved by the marks of wheels, which may be traced close to the above-mentioned cliffs. Rocks likewise frequently fall in, owing either to the sea working its way under them, or to the incidental destruction of the lower strata.

The soft kind of stone in Malta and Gozo is always more or less inclined to waste and dissolve when exposed to the air; it also undergoes a kind of saline efflorescence, which reduces it to powder, and this effect is hastened by different accidents and par-

ticular situations. The stones exposed to the air towards the south, are much sooner dissolved than in any other aspect, but nothing wastes them in so short a time as the sea water, one single drop of which suffices to rot them presently; and, though only one stone should be touched, it frequently communicates itself to the next, and by this means speedily destroys, not only a whole rock, but a whole building, if a stone thus affected should happen to be employed in its construction. A sort of saline crust, composed of nitre, with alkali at bottom and sea salt, is formed over the stone, part of which is no sooner crumbled to powder, than the crust drops off, and others continue forming till the whole of the stone is entirely destroyed. This effect, I believe, is principally produced by the humidity which the sea water, with earthy particles at the bottom contained in sea-water, always attracts; and this humidity is the principal vehicle for the production of nitre, if at the same time other circumstances concur for that purpose. I have already observed that the stones most liable to this spontaneous destruction are those which contain the most magnesia, from which this soft kind is never entirely free.

In the craggy rocks round Malta and Gozo are many spacious caves or grottoes, some of which being on a level with the sea the waves dash in when in an agitated state, and resound tremendously. The mouths of others are at different heights, and the access is more or less difficult and dangerous, according to their situation; there are some, indeed, in order to enter which, it is necessary to be suspended by ropes.

One of the most considerable of those usually visited, is situated towards the point of land called Benghisa, near the Marsa Sirocco creek. This, from its length and breadth, is distinguished by the name of the *Great*, and it extends more than 200 paces underground.

All these grottoes are full of stalactites and stalagmites, produced by the water filtering through the calcareous rock. The falling in of one of these caverns must have caused the singular excavation called Makluba, near Casal Zurrico, which certainly deserves to be seen. At the distance of 100 paces to the south of the shore, and not far from the rocks on the coast, there is a circular, or rather an oval cavity, more than 100 feet in depth, and formed like an imperfect cone. The larger diameter of the lower plain is about ninety-five paces, and that of the smaller one eighty, but the opening is less than twenty paces. This excavation is in those shelving cliffs which incline a little from south to north, and have hitherto suffered no change, but have remained exactly as if this, in part, circular space, had been the work of art.

On examining the state of the lower ranges of rock, I remarked, that they were corroded in the same manner as the others exposed to the fury of the waves. The surface of them is unequal and hollow, but they have, notwithstanding, a sort of polish, and a harder coat than the rest of the stone, whereas the upper ledges have suffered the same degree of corrosion which affects all the Maltese rocks when exposed to the air, and which is very different

from the basis. There is a great depth of vegetable earth in the lower plain; but though they have frequently dug very low, they have never been able to find a bottom. All these circumstances infallibly prove, that the great hollow was occasioned by the falling in of a vast cavern which communicated with the sea, and the time when this happened cannot have been very remote. Above the space which has sunk in, there appears to have been some habitation, for there is a well fifty feet deep in the part of the rock, into which stairs have been made to descend. It was formerly deeper, but has been since filled up by earth from the neighbouring hills, the mouth of this excavation being situated in a kind of small valley. The word Makluba signifies *overturned*.

There are blocks and detached pieces of a blackish and reddish calcareous stone to be found in different places in Malta, particularly in the part of Benghisa, near Marsa Sirocco. These have a false appearance of *lava*, or of burnt stone with small pores, and when rubbed, exhale a very strong and disagreeable smell. On being dissolved by means of acids, there remains swimming on the top a black oily scum, which occasions the disagreeable smell. This *lapis suillus* has certainly been impregnated with the oil of some cetaceous fish. I am ignorant whether there are any particular strata composed of it.'

The following is an enumeration of the principal fossils of Malta and Gozo, originally drawn up by M. Dolomieu, and corrected in the little work of St. Priest, translated by Boisgelin:—

‘ 1. *Pyrites Martiales* and *Conchæ pyritosæ mar-*

tiales, found in different clayey hills, particularly in one near the town of Gozo. When these fossils were first discovered, it was imagined they made part of a gold mine, and some speculators threw away their money in making experiments; but the hopes they had cherished of great riches presently vanished into air.

2. *Gypsum*, in those forms which are commonly called *cuneiform* and *spicular* gypsum: this is formed in separate spots in the same clay; the pieces are sometimes very large, but seldom regularly crystallized.

3. *Calcareous alabaster*. Those of Gozo are yellow, slightly veined, and sometimes semi-transparent, like the antique alabaster. They are also hard and compact, and there are lumps and blocks sufficiently large to make pillars and urns of a great size, if they were worked for that purpose, but hitherto nothing has been made but tables. Alabaster is found in Gozo on the top of mountains, and it is observable that it forms itself by accretion in those cavities which accident has wrought in the common calcareous mass. The Maltese alabaster exists in large blocks, separated from each other on the sea coast. The top and middle of the calcareous stone are brown, with circular veins. This is not so hard and compact as the yellow kind, and is liable to a variety of incidental imperfections, such as being full of cavities, and earthy, stony parts, which prevent its being employed for works of any magnitude, &c. It derives its dusky colour from a thick and oily sort of matter.

4. A variety of calcareous stalactites formed in

grottoes. These are real alabaster in concentric beds.

5. Remains of the back and jaw-bones of various cetaceous animals. These have been found in the calcareous mass in many parts of the two islands, and in a bed of calcareous, ferruginous, and black sand, which has given them a tinge of the same colour. These, however, are scarce; they are partly petrified, that is to say, a calcareous lapidifical moisture has penetrated into the bony texture.

6. *Glossopetra*, or, more properly, *odontopetra*, or fish teeth of different shapes and sizes, the greater part of which belonged to the phoca or sea-cow, the shark, different sorts of sea-dogs, and to some particular species of skate. Part of these teeth are indented at the edge, and part entirely smooth; the largest are seven inches long, of a flat triangular form, with a bifurcated or two-fanged root. There are others only one inch in length, pointed almost conical, with roots also bifurcated, and shaped like birds' and serpents' tongues. Most of these teeth have preserved their grey and shining enamel in such a manner, that the filtration could not penetrate through them; they are therefore not petrified in the inside, and have not lost their bony texture. Those roots which have not been guarded from the filtration are become stony.

Odontopetra are common in Malta, and particularly in Gozo, where they are found enclosed and scattered about in the soft stone of these islands. I have never heard whether a jaw-bone was ever discovered with this kind of teeth.

7. *Crapaudina bufonitæ*, or serpents' eyes. These are likewise odontopetra or fish teeth of a hemispherical, conical, or oval form. They belonged to the gilt-head and other fish of the same kind; they are whitish, grey, yellow, black, or with concentric circles of different colours. These teeth are of different sizes, from one line to four in diameter; they are concave within, and are in a half state of petrification. There are great numbers in Malta, but those only with concentric zones are in any estimation, and the large ones of that kind are very scarce.

8. *Odontopetra*, which belonged to the *hippopotamus* or river-horse. These were the grinders of those animals, and are almost all square, with obtuse conical eminences; there are some eight inches on the surface, but they are seldom found entire. The part which has no enamel is petrified. This kind of *odontopetra* is far from common.

9. *Asteria*, *entrochitæ*, and other detached parts of the vertebræ of the encrinus.

10. Echinites of different shapes and sizes. The most remarkable are the hemispherical, some of which are seven inches in diameter; others, equally large, are pentagonal, pyramidal, or shaped like an imperfect pyramid. Some are almost round, others are compressed and almost flat, and all are distinguished by names analogous to their shape. These large *echinities* are changed into calcareous spar of a yellow or white colour; the inside is either empty or filled with a white or yellow earth, according to the colour of the outside of the spar. The *echinities* are found in pretty large quantities in the craggy parts of Malta,

in the soft stone, or in those beds of black sand which are but weakly agglutinated.

There is a great variety of *echinites* of a smaller size, such as the *gobulares*, the *spatagoidæi*, or shaped like a heart, the *clunicunares*, *natifformes*, &c. The exterior part is changed into white spar, and the inside filled with the same calcareous white and tender stone, in which they are found in such great quantities. Some among them are much squeezed, but the greatest number have preserved the same shape and position, as in the sea.

Fragments of *echinites* are also found in Malta: these are shaped like shields, and are called *assulæ*, *quinquangulares*, *hexangulares*, *mammillares*, *orbiculares*, &c.; likewise pieces of small bones of the same fish, but no Judea stones.

11. Numbers of fossil shells of different families, some of which have the upper part half petrified, whilst the impression of others only remains. The only remarkable ones among the former are the *dentalites*, or sea-tubes, two inches thick, and frequently many feet in length. When they are in a circular form they resemble petrified serpents. *Ostracites* shaped like cocks' combs, and some very large *pectinites* with and without ears.

The impressions of shells are either black or white, according to the colour of the earth. The most remarkable are the *dactilites* and *pholadites*. The impression of the inside of a small *terebratula*, which is exactly of the shape, size, and colour of hemp-seed: there are great quantities in the rocks near Casal Gargur.

Many of these fossils are found in the hills and mountains near the old city, where there are banks almost entirely composed of them. All the rocks in the island likewise contain some of the same kind.

12. And lastly, quantities of *lithophytæ* and *madriporites* of different sorts and sizes, among which there is nothing very remarkable: they are found in the steep part of the rocks towards the south, and particularly near a place called Bahria. Some large rocks are entirely composed of them, and near them other rocks full of *ostracites*.'

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The climate of Malta is decidedly warm, indeed, almost tropical. The *maximum* temperature for the year may be taken at 90° F., the *minimum* at 46° , and the mean at 63° F. The barometer may be similarly quoted at $38^{\circ} 8'$, $30^{\circ} 2'$, and $30^{\circ} 5'$. The hygrometer 87° , 30° , and $58\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. The heat of the summer is doubtless increased by radiation of the solar rays from the rocks surrounding Valetta; but in the country around, and in Gozo in particular, the atmosphere is from 2° to 4° cooler.

As I observed, in regard to other colonies, thermometrical observations do not afford a fair mode of judging of the sensible effects of heat; we must connect therewith the state of the winds and moisture of the air. The most prevalent winds are the south-east (the Sirocco), and the north-west; the former characterized by its humidity, accompanied by an exhausting degree of temperature, producing a damp and suffocating smell to the sick: these Siroccos are most prevalent in August, September, and October. The north-east wind ("gregale") is brief and violent

in its duration, frequently occasioning serious mischief in the harbour during the winter months.

Occasionally sudden and partial gusts of intensely heated air are felt in Malta, which are blown from the coast of Africa. Fortunately they seldom exceed half a minute in duration, for if longer continued life would be extinguished, owing to the severity of the heat, which is remarkable for blowing in tracts, affecting the inhabitants of one house and not their neighbours. It is probably a portion of the "Samiel" or "Simoom" of Africa. When dry wind blows over the island, especially in summer, volumes of impalpable dust float about, which is precipitated in the shape of a shower of mud, on the recurrence of a damp wind, or when the fogs and dews are peculiarly long.

No regular sea and land breezes are felt in Malta, by which the heat would be moderated; and it is a remarkable fact that Captain Smyth found the temperature of the sea, round the adjacent shores of Sicily, at a depth of ten to twenty fathoms, 73° to 76° F., which was ten or twelve degrees warmer than the water outside of the Straits of Gibraltar. Snow only appears at Malta as a luxury imported from Etna, but in the winter months there are frequent hail showers. Rain falls with tropical violence in December, January, and part of February. About March the sky gets settled; an occasional shower may fall in April and May, but during June, July, and August, not a cloud is to be seen. September and October are cooled with showers, the air is placid

and invigorating, and termed “St. Martin’s,” or the “little summer.”

The effects of thunder and lightning are not severely experienced, though the electric discharge is loud and frequent, and during the summer and autumn nights the sky is brilliantly illuminated with bright corruscations, resembling the Aurora Borealis of northern climes.

The following remarks on the winds and climate of Malta, as observed by Dolomieu, in 1783, are equally applicable to the present, and they bear out my remarks in other volumes of this work, that the range of temperature is of less consequence to the animal frame than the state of the winds:—

‘Reaumur’s thermometer in Malta during the summer is generally below 25° , and scarcely ever above 28° . In winter it is very seldom lower than 8° below the freezing point.

Heat and cold are most felt when the thermometer is at either of the two extreme points of our temperature, for there is an almost constant contrast between our sensations and the instrument which measures the true temperature of the air, between sensible and real heat.

The different directions of the wind produce an instantaneous change from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. North or north-west winds always occasion cold, and a south wind constantly brings heat. The violence with which they blow modifies the sensations they cause, and those produced by these winds become still stronger, because the atmosphere they

put in motion is analogous to what we feel from real heat and extreme cold.

A north-west wind purifies the air in the greatest degree ; a north-east wind is not quite so pure, and it becomes infinitely less so when it changes to the south-east or the south, but it grows rather better when it veers to the south-west, particularly if the sea be much agitated.

The north-west wind is purified by the vast expanse of sea which it passes over ; but the north wind would suffer some degree of alteration from Italy and Sicily, if the great vegetation in those fine countries did not tend to purify the atmosphere. When the wind changes to the south it becomes dangerous, owing to its having passed over the barren burning continent of Africa, where there is scarcely any vegetation, and where the heat is so intense, that every thing susceptible of rarefaction in the earth produces exhalations which enter into the atmosphere. It is not purified by passing over the sea, because the channel is narrow, and being sheltered by the land, the water is not sufficiently agitated to absorb by its motion the mephitic miasmata with which the air is impregnated.

The extreme cold during winter is produced by the pure air which blows from the north. The winds act upon us by their great violence, which continually renews the volume of air that surrounds us.

The cold thus produced is easily avoided by not exposing ourselves to the constant currents of air and violence of the wind.

In summer, when the wind blows from the south-east, the usual purity of the air is so greatly altered, that were it to change a few degrees more, it would be impossible to breathe, and the insensible perspiration of the body would form so thick an atmosphere, that suffocation must infallibly ensue.

The south winds never blow long at a time, seldom lasting more than three or four days. They are frequently succeeded by a calm, during which the heat is also very great, but much less oppressive and suffocating, though the thermometer frequently shows a much higher degree of real heat; the air is then infinitely more pure, and the sea breezes during the night, and indeed some part of the day, greatly refresh the atmosphere. This air is purified by passing over the water, which it gently agitates. There is also a morning and land breeze, which, though less pure, cool the air in some degree. When the wind changes suddenly from the south to north, we feel an astonishing lightness, our sensations are inexpressibly pleasant, and we breathe with the greatest freedom.

Nothing is more salutary during the sirocco than iced beverages; they revive the spirits, strengthen the body, and assist digestion. Snow is therefore considered at Malta as one of the first necessities of life: it is brought from Sicily and administered to the sick. Whenever there is a scarcity of this article, all that remains in the ice-houses is entirely reserved for the use of the hospitals.'

Diseases.—Malta, though, strictly speaking, without any marshy exhalations, has abundance of all the

ills to which flesh is heir. Dr. Hennen endeavours to prove that fever is the prevalent malady, on the following data.

The following is a statement of the admissions, discharges, and deaths by fever, in the Civil Hospital, for three years¹:—

¹ The different species of fever are not enumerated in the documents. Remittents and intermittents are of annual occurrence among the resident inhabitants, and in considerable numbers, although their relative proportion is not noted. It has, indeed, been suggested by those who are unwilling to allow that diseases of marsh origin are endemic in Malta, that the principal number of these diseases are caught in Sicily, and are thence transferred by boats' crews. It certainly does happen that such persons have occasionally caught remittent fever while in Sicily; but it is as certain that a large proportion of the men, women, and children who suffer from the disease in Malta have never been beyond the precincts of their native island in their lives.

Return of Admissions, Discharges, and Deaths, of Cases of Fever in the Civil Hospital of Malta, for the
Years 1821, 1822, and 1823.

Class of Hospital.	1821.			1822.			1823.			Total.			Remarks.
	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	
Male.....	262	220	35	243	207	28	292	242	39	797	669	102	Mortality on an average of 3 years. Male, 1 in $7\frac{83}{102}$ Female, 1 in $5\frac{6}{9}$ Soldiers, 1 in $23\frac{1}{2}$
Female.....	138	110	22	134	97	34	184	150	34	456	357	90	
Maltese Fencibles	15	13	..	5	5	..	27	25	2	47	43	2	
Total.....	415	343	57	382	309	62	503	417	75	1300	1069	194	Total, 1 in $6\frac{136}{194}$

It is to be remarked, that among the deaths many have occurred in aged paupers, brought from the "Ospizio," and it is also to be kept in mind, that the worst cases of disease found their way to the Civil Hospital.

The admissions of fever cases into the Civil Hospital, during the three years, were, we perceive, by the above return, 1300. The total admissions for the same period were 8736 ; so that fever has been to all other diseases very nearly in the proportion of one to seven.

On referring to the returns of deaths among the natives not in the hospital, I find that the proportion of fevers must have been very large, for the deaths must have been as follows :—

	Fevers.	Total Deaths.
In the year 1818 . .	263 . .	2330
1819 . .	260 . .	2029
1820 . .	223 . .	2297
1821 . .	180 . .	1912
1822 . .	247 . .	2310
1823 . .	273 . .	2566

Giving a total of 1446	13444
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Or the deaths by fever bore to the deaths of all other diseases the proportion of one to ten nearly.

Comparative View of Deaths by Fever among the Inhabitants of the Island of Malta for six years, between 1818 and 1823 inclusive.

Towns and Villages.	Population.	Deaths by Fever in						Total.	Proportion of Deaths to Population.
		1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.		
Valetta and Floriana .. }	25546	76	87	65	49	50	42	369	1 in 69 $\frac{79}{369}$
Vittoriosa, Cospicua, & Senglea	18649	54	48	37	22	37	25	223	1 in 83 $\frac{140}{223}$
Notabile and Dingli	5166	16	8	11	3	14	11	63	1 in 82
Zebug	4776	10	10	13	9	14	16	72	1 in 66 $\frac{1}{3}$
Siggieni	3373	8	5	11	6	2	12	44	1 in 76 $\frac{29}{44}$
Crendi	1052	3	2	2	1	2	1	11	1 in 95 $\frac{7}{11}$
Micabiba	814	5	4	2	2	1	2	16	1 in 50 $\frac{7}{8}$
Zurrico	3618	8	9	7	11	12	18	65	1 in 55 $\frac{43}{65}$
Safi	227	2	..	1	..	1	..	4	1 in 56 $\frac{3}{4}$
Chircop	315	2	..	..	1	..	..	3	1 in 105
Asciach	1136	7	1	3	1	4	2	18	1 in 63 $\frac{1}{9}$
Gudia	1040	..	3	4	2	6	..	15	1 in 69 $\frac{1}{3}$
Zeitun	5440	8	18	13	31	18	18	101	1 in 53 $\frac{87}{101}$
Zabbar	3537	5	7	9	3	13	16	53	1 in 66 $\frac{39}{53}$
Tarxien	1011	4	1	..	1	2	2	10	1 in 101 $\frac{1}{10}$
Luca	1268	8	6	2	2	3	3	24	1 in 52 $\frac{5}{6}$
Curmi	4130	11	18	10	7	7	12	65	1 in 63 $\frac{35}{65}$
Birchircara	5253	10	10	8	3	14	17	62	1 in 84 $\frac{45}{62}$
Balzan	633	3	2	4	..	3	2	14	1 in 45 $\frac{3}{14}$
Lia	1039	1	2	6	6	2	13	30	1 in 34 $\frac{19}{30}$
Attard	907	2	..	..	..	..	7	9	1 in 100 $\frac{7}{9}$
Musta	3369	9	10	8	9	20	38	94	1 in 35 $\frac{79}{94}$
Nasciaro	2965	8	8	5	7	18	16	62	1 in 47 $\frac{51}{62}$
Gargur	1139	3	1	2	4	3	5	18	1 in 63 $\frac{5}{18}$
Total	96404	263	260	223	180	246	273	1445	1 in 66 $\frac{1034}{1445}$

Ophthalmia forms, in Dr. Hennen's estimation, one of the important complaints of the island, but in the returns of the civil hospital, no more than 324 cases of the disease appear to have been treated during the course of three years. They are as follows:—

	1821.	1822.	1833.	Total.
Males . . .	40	28	51	119
Females . . .	56	51	50	157
Soldiers . . .	24	4	20	48
	—	—	—	—
Total . . .	120	83	121	324

The admissions from ophthalmia have not borne a greater proportion to the admissions of other diseases, than about one in twenty-seven; and Mr. Portelli, Professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the hospital, states, that he has never had more than ten or twelve patients labouring under the disease at one time. The fact is, that the natives who are subject to ophthalmia treat it but lightly; they are often seen walking about the streets with the disease upon them; and except it arises to a very aggravated pitch, they do not deem it of sufficient consequence to warrant an application at the hospital, but treat it with the domestic remedies within their reach. In one form or other ophthalmia appears every year both in Malta and Gozo, and generally commences and terminates about the same autumnal period.

It appears principally among the lower orders, and of them the women and children are most frequently and most severely afflicted. There is every reason to suppose, that those diseases principally proceed

from the united influence of the excessive heat of the atmosphere, the great glare of the sun reflected from the rocks and numerous buildings, and the vast quantity of dust blowing about in all directions; while, during the night, the atmosphere is often particularly damp, from the copious depositions of dew, to the effect of which the lower orders are fully exposed, as they sleep frequently in the open air, and always with the head uncovered; in addition to which the sirocco winds of autumn are peculiarly damp of themselves.

In Egypt, suppression of perspiration, and exposure of the head to the damp night air, after the eyes have been subjected all the day to the action of the heat, light, and dust, are satisfactorily proved by Assalini, Larrey, and others, to have been the most frequent causes of the disease. In Aleppo, a climate which, in so many points resembles Malta, the ophthalmia, both of adults and children, is met with at all seasons; but it constantly becomes so frequent in the months of August and September, that there are few years in which, at least, one-sixth of the inhabitants are not more or less affected with it. Dr. Russell, adopts the popular opinion, that it proceeds from the night dews, which, though in small quantities, sometimes fall at those seasons of the year, and from which the natives who sleep in the open air have no canopy to shelter them. Europeans who sleep in field beds, protected by a thick covering at top, besides curtains, are exempt from this malady, but have been seized with it upon lying exposed in the manner of the

natives. In some years the ophthalmia rages with destructive malignancy.

After the disease once attacks, it leaves a great liability in the weakened organ to suffer from its recurrence, and hence there are, at this day, in Malta, numbers who are affected with ophthalmia annually without any obvious cause; others can trace it to damp, cold, dust, &c.; while others suffer in the same manner as Assalini's Maltese servant, who was attacked "every time that he slept in the open air."

The number of blind that are daily met with in the streets seems to countenance the idea, that the success in treating the disease does not bear a very flattering proportion to its frequency.

During the whole of the first winter the French army passed in Malta, their soldiers suffered extremely from blindness; the succeeding year, however, the complaint existed but in a very trifling degree¹.

Bowel Affections.—Next to fever, the most prevalent diseases among the natives are affections of the bowels and pulmonary complaints.

The number of deaths under the heads "Diarrhœa" and "Dysentery," bear a very large proportion to the total mortality; in six years they have amounted to nearly a seventh of the entire.

Pulmonary Affections.—The deaths by pulmonary affections are also very numerous: they are classed under six different heads in the bills of mortality, viz. cough, consumption, hæmoptysis, phthisis pulmonalis, pleuritis, and pulmonic.

¹ Boisgelin, vol. ii. p. 142. Assalini, p. 127.

Summary View of the Deaths by Pulmonary Affections among the Natives, throughout the Island of Malta, from the year 1818 to the year 1823 inclusive, exclusive of Deaths in the Hospitals.

Class.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	Total.
Cough	15	76	38	54	209	116	508
Consumption.....	143	91	122	173	373	220	1122
Hæmoptysis.....	8	7	5	4	5	7	36
Phthisis Pulmonalis	78	67	63	85	90	67	450
Pleuritis.....	8	5	16	8	9	3	49
Pulmonic.....	50	33	37	31	30	30	211
Total.....	302	279	281	355	716	443	2376

In the civil hospital, the admissions from pulmonary complaints are numerous, and the proportional mortality considerable, as appears by the following table:—

Summary View of the Admissions and Deaths from Pulmonary Complaints in the Civil Hospital of Malta, from 1821 to 1823 inclusive.

Class.	Males.						Females.						Native Soldiers.						Remarks.
	1821.		1822.		1823.		1821.		1822.		1823.		1821.		1822.		1823.		
	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	Admitted.	Died.	
Cough & Catarrh	99	25	90	14	90	22	71	14	69	10	53	8	2	..	2	..	1	..	Total admissions, 731.
Consumption....	4	2	..	..	3	2	9	6	6	5	5	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	— deaths, 180.
Hæmoptysis.....	12	1	8	2	15	1	6	..	5	..	9	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	— proportional mor-
Pleuritis.....	19	..	19	2	14	..	10	..	13	12	17	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	tality, 1 in $4\frac{11}{180}$.
Phthisis Pulmon.	4	4	1	..	7	5	7	4	7	5	11	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	Mortality of males, 1
Pulmonic.....	7	4	9	4	4	3	5	4	6	5	9	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	in $4\frac{1}{91}$.
Total.....	145	36	127	22	133	33	108	28	106	37	104	24	3	..	3	..	2	..	— females, 1 in $3\frac{41}{89}$.
																			— soldiers. Nodeaths.

The rarity of pulmonary affections among the native soldiers is striking. There appear to be two reasons for this : first, the selection of soldiers is made from the healthiest young natives ; and when unfit for duty as soldiers, they are at once discharged, and replaced by sound, healthy men ; and secondly, they have no night duties on the works to perform, nor are any subject to drills, &c. as British troops are ; indeed, all the diseases of these men are slight and simple, consisting principally of fever, venereal, and ophthalmia.

Without reckoning at all on the deaths under the head " Consumption," we perceive, by referring to the first of the above tables, that the diseases purely pulmonic have formed nearly one-eleventh of the whole mortality among the natives, and of this proportion phthisis pulmonalis has given more than one-third.

This fatal disease, as it occurs among the natives, is rapid in its course, and, as in Italy and other parts of the continent, it is considered, both by the medical men and the inhabitants, to be contagious ; hence the greatest precautions are taken to purify the chambers of the sick, while the bedding, which they have used during their illness, and all the furniture of their rooms, are invariably burned¹.

The village of Zurrico, which lies high, and the air of which is dry and pure, is reputed to be a very unfavourable situation for persons with diseased lungs, and not without reason. One-tenth of the deaths

¹ I am informed that the catarrh which raged last year at Gibraltar was considered to be contagious.

under the head “cough,” occurred at Zurrigo; and, on summing up all the pulmonary diseases, a twentieth of them appears to have taken place there—certainly a striking proportion.

Tænia and other worms are so frequent, that they are scarcely considered sources of disease. The inhabitants assert, that they are much more subject to intestinal worms of all kinds now than formerly; and they attribute it to their supply of corn no longer coming from Sicily, but from Odessa and Egypt, the grain from which places, they imagine, contains the germ of the worm.

Convulsions and other infantile diseases are extremely frequent among the children, and carry off great numbers.

Hernia is a disease of such common occurrence, that a surgeon in full practice has estimated that nearly one-third of his acquaintance were affected. Hydrocele is also a very common disease. Bowel complaints are not unfrequent, especially among new comers¹. Affections of the liver are very prevalent,

¹ Acute Dysentery, Cholera Morbus, and Diarrhœa, from 1816 to 1822.

Diseases.	Number of Admissions Monthly.												Total Admissions.	Total died.	Proportional Mortality.
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.			
Acute Dysentery	35	19	21	18	18	37	52	50	67	75	111	61	564	27	1 in 20 ⁸ / ₉
Cholera Morbus	3	1	2	5	8	10	26	13	17	13	6	2	106	2	1 in 53 ¹ / ₂
Diarrhœa . . .	45	31	32	28	45	84	128	158	174	167	129	65	1086	10	1 in 108 ³ / ₅
Total . .	83	51	55	51	71	131	206	221	258	55	246	128	1756	39	1 in 45 ¹ / ₃₅

under various forms, although not so generally fatal as the other classes of disease. Stone in the bladder is occasionally met with, and it is remarkable, that it has been found to occur chiefly among the inhabitants of the village of Birchicara: this village lies rather low, at the head of the valley of Missida; a fiumare runs through it, but there appears to be nothing peculiar in its waters.

The foregoing data are derived from Dr. Hennen's reports to the Army Medical Board, but they are at considerable variance with the following documents transmitted me during the present year by the governor of Malta, and which I subjoin without further comment, as they are given with a view to afford materials for an extended inquiry as to the duration of human life in different countries and climates, and under dissimilar or similar circumstances. I commence, with the military returns, as they extend over a period of eleven years.

Return of Deaths amongst the British Troops in the Command of Malta, during a period of ten Years, viz. from 1825 to 1834 inclusive.

Diseases.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	Total.
Febris Quot. Interm.	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Remittens	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	3	10	14
Cont. Com.	5	6	3	5	1	5	7	2	1	4	39
Synochus	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Delirium Tremens	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	3	4
Phlegmon et Abscessus	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	1	3
Phrenitis	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pneumonia	..	1	1	..	..	2	10	3	6	2	25
Peritonitis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	3
Enteritis	1	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	4
Hepatitis Acuta	..	1	..	..	2	1	..	..	..	..	4
Chronica	1	2	..	1	2	1	1	3	1	..	12
Rheumatismus Acutus	3	..	..	2	..	..	1	..	..	1	7
Chronicus	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	1	..	1
Variola	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	2
Scarlatina	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Erysipelas	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	3
Hæmoptysis	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Hæmatemesis	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2
Phthisis Pul. Tub.	4	6	5	3	9	5	8	4	10	12	66
Catarrhus Acutus	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	1	2	6
Chronicus	..	2	..	..	4	1	4	1	2	1	15
Dysenteria Acuta	3	3	3	4	5	11	5	4	2	3	43
Chronica	1	..	..	..	1	2	1	1	..	..	6
Apoplexia	1	1	..	1	..	1	2	..	1	1	8
Paralysis	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Dyspepsia	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Epilepsia	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Dyspnœa Cont.	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	3
Colica	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	2
Cholera Morbus	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	2
Diarrhœa	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	..	..	1	13
Amentia	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	2
Mania	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Anasarca	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	2	..	..	4
Ascites	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2
Scrophula	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Hydarthrus	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Icterus	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	3
Dysuria	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Vulnus Incisum	..	2	..	..	3	..	1	..	..	..	6
Contusiae	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	3
Fractura	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	1	1	1	6
Hæmorrhagia	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Total	25	30	19	27	32	43	47	23	34	47	327
Sudden Deaths, &c.											
Hæmoptysis	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Syncope	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
Aneurisma	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Apoplexia	1	..	..	4	1	1	..	2	1	1	11
Hæmaternesis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Fractura	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Contusia	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	2
Vulnus Sclopetarium	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Suicides	1	..	1	1	2	4	..	1	2	2	14
Drowned	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
Suffocation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Suffered the penalty of the law	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Total	4	1	2	5	4	7	4	6	4	6	43
Average strength of command	2036	2610	1776	2667	2291	2406	2094	2118	2117	2364	

Numerical Return of Men sent home to be discharged the Service, or for change of Climate, from the Malta command, during ten Years, viz. from 1825 to 1834 inclusive.

Diseases.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	Total.
Febris Quot. Interm.	..	..	..	..	7	3	..	..	..	..	10
— Cont. Com.	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	3
Phlegmon et Abscessus	..	..	1	2	2	2	..	..	..	2	9
Cynanche Trachealis	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pneumonia	..	1	1	1	..	4	3	1	..	1	12
Hepatitis Acuta	..	..	1	..	..	4	..	1	..	1	7
— Chronica	7	7	4	2	..	1	2	..	..	..	23
Nephritis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
Rheumatismus Acutus	..	..	2	..	..	2	4	1	1	2	12
— Chronicus	3	7	1	1	3	5	2	..	4	1	27
Hæmoptysis	..	1	2	..	..	..	1	..	2	..	6
Phthisis Pul. Tub.	5	4	1	1	1	2	6	6	3	3	32
Catarrhus Chronicus	1	9	19	3	1	12	4	9	8	8	74
Dysenteria Chronica	5	1	2	3	..	..	2	1	10	14	38
Paralysis	..	2	..	4	1	1	1	..	..	1	10
Dyspepsia	..	4	1	..	..	1	2	..	1	3	12
Epilepsia	..	..	2	..	..	2	..	..	..	2	6
Asthma period. Convul.	..	..	1	2	..	5	..	..	2	..	10
Dyspnœa Cont.	5	3	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	10
Diarrhœa	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	4	7
Amentia	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Mania	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	1	2	..	6
Anasarca	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Ascites	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	2
Physconia	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Scrophula	..	1	2	2	..	1	1	..	1	..	8
Syphilis Consecutiva	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Scorbutus	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1
Icterus	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	2
Contractura	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Eneuresis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Hernia Humoralis	2	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	1	5
Strictura Urethræ	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	2
Sarcocele	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Obstipatio	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Varia	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	5
Hernia	2	10	2	..	3	2	..	..	..	..	19
Aneurisma	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Fistula in Ano	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
— in Perinæo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Luxatio	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Subluxatio	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	2
Vulnus Sclopetarium	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2
— Incisum	2	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6
Contusio	2	4	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	9
Ambustio	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	..	4
Ulcus	3	..	1	..	..	1	2	..	2	6	15
Fractura	..	2	..	..	..	..	3	..	1	2	8
Amputatio	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	3
Caries of Teeth	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Morbi Oculorum	18	9	4	..	10	5	6	4	6	1	63
— Cutis	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	2	5
Total	57	74	53	29	31	64	46	28	50	61	493
Worn out, &c.	3	..	1	19	..	1	..	..	..	..	24
	60	74	54	48	51	65	46	28	50	61	517
Average strength of command	2036	2610	1776	2667	2291	2406	2094	2118	2117	2364	

Return of Deaths in the Island of Malta, from 1st January to
31st December, 1834.

Diseases.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Abortus	17	9	10	10	10	4	15	16	8	10	7	10	126
Abscessus	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	9
Anasarca	8	17	13	10	14	6	5	8	7	8	11	10	117
Angina	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Aneurisma	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	5
Anthrax	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	1	1	1	8
Apoplexia	24	16	12	13	8	4	6	7	3	13	7	18	131
Ascitis	1	3	4	3	2	1	4	2	1	3	1	4	27
Asthma	4	1	8	1	5	1	2	1	3	6	3	5	38
Aphtæ	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	4
Bronchitis	4	2	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	15
Cancer	1	4	3	2	3	4	1	1	1	3	2	4	28
Cangrena	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Cardialgia	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Carditis	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Catarrhus acutus	7	8	9	4	4	1	3	1	2	4	2	5	49
chronicus	2	2	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	4	19
Colica	2	1	1	1	1	1	4	2	3	1	6	1	21
Cephalgia	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Convulsio	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	12
Collisi causa pulveris	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11
Concussio cerebri	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Croup	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Combustio accidentalis	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Debilitas senilis	5	11	11	8	4	4	2	8	3	4	3	3	66
infantilis	13	14	21	5	11	5	6	6	5	6	9	11	112
Diabetes	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4
Diarrhœa	17	15	30	16	10	31	25	34	27	20	25	25	275
Dentitio	11	11	9	8	9	18	25	25	29	21	15	5	186
Dyspepsia	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Dysenteria acuta	4	1	7	2	1	1	6	21	9	11	15	4	79
chronica	2	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	4	1	18
Eclampsia	27	28	25	26	17	6	12	17	11	9	8	18	204
Empyema	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Encephalitis	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	4	1	1	11
Enteritis	3	6	4	6	3	3	7	2	9	11	6	6	66
Epilepsia	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5
Erysipelas phlegmonosa	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Febris intermittens	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
remittens	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	29
putrida	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4
nervosa	4	4	5	6	1	3	4	3	7	1	7	7	52
typhoida	8	6	18	7	14	5	5	10	5	5	4	3	80
lenta	6	13	9	6	4	8	9	6	5	3	6	5	80
communis synocha	8	9	2	13	12	7	2	3	6	3	3	2	17
vel sinocus	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	53
Flegmon	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Fractura	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4
Fungus hæmatodes	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Gastritis	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	12
Hæmatura	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Hæmoptysis	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	13
Hepatitis	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	3	1	1	2	1	14
Homicidium	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Hernia	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4
Hydrocephala	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	4
Hydrothorax	1	6	10	1	3	5	2	1	4	3	8	7	50

(Continued.)

Diseases.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.
Icterus	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	3
Ischuria	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	3
Marasmus senilis	4	1	1	..	1	2	1	..	4	7	2	7	30
— infantilis	24	13	16	9	10	30	32	20	15	14	15	9	207
Metritis	..	2	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	7
Morbili	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Mortui in partu	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	4
Mortui in utero matris	3	8	6	3	5	2	4	1	3	4	5	4	48
Nephritis	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	2
Nervosdis	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Palpitatio	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Peritonitis puerperalis	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pertussis	1	1	1	3	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	8
Phthisis pulmonalis	14	12	12	10	13	8	14	19	..	..	..	..	150
Phrenitis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Pleuritis	3	..	2	3	2	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	12
Podagra retropulsa	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pneumonitis	6	2	8	10	4	1	1	2	2	3	4	6	49
Pneumonia notha	1	1	..	2	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	7
Rheumatismus chronicus	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2
Scirrhus	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	3
Scorbutus	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Scrophula	3	1	2	4	4	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	24
Sphacelus	..	..	1	1	..	..	1	1	3	1	1	..	9
Suffocatio	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
— in aqua	2	..	..	..	..	2	2	2	1	..	1	1	11
Syphilis	1	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Splenitis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Tetanus	..	..	..	2	2	..	1	..	..	1	1	2	9
Trachitis	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Tussis infantilis	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Ulcus	1	..	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	4
Vomitus	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Volvolus	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	4
Ustio	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Total	262	262	291	230	195	176	218	252	204	208	211	223	2732

The endemic diseases are few; small pox has been unknown for some years; varicella and scarlatina, occasionally appear, and measles are not unusual. The most important endemic is the plague, which was first noticed in the Maltese annals in 1549, A.D.; in 1593 it again appeared:—in 1623 forty persons died of it, and in 1663 it reappeared, when only twenty persons fell victims to it: but its advent in 1675 was dreadful, for 11,300 persons died of this terrible malady. For 130 years Malta was free from plague, when it broke out with fearful violence in

1813; for, from its commencement in April, 1813, to its termination in September the same year, 4486 deaths took place in the island, of which 1223 occurred in Valetta, the mortality being about eighty in the hundred attacked: the monthly progress is shewn by the deaths from April to November, viz.: April, three cases; May, 110; June, 800; July, 1595; August, 1042; September, 674; October, 211; November, 53; *maximum* of the thermometer during those months was, 71° 82° 84° 88° 86° 88° 83° 72° F. strong winds blew during part of the period, particularly in July. How the plague originated was never clearly ascertained: it was generally attributed to three vessels which arrived in Malta, 29th March, 1813, from Alexandria, where the plague was then raging; some of the crews of these vessels died on the passage from pestilential diseases.

I will not here enter on the question of contagion or non-contagion, but it is a remarkable fact, that some of the populous villages or casals in Malta totally escaped the disorder, and cases are on record where a woman held her dying husband in her arms, or the husband nursed his dying wife and children with perfect impunity; nay, even children sucked their dying mothers, and lay infolded in their arms without contracting the disease. In truth, the question of contagion (or diseases caught by *contact* only) and infection (diseases communicated by the atmosphere,) is not yet sufficiently understood.

AGRICULTURE AND VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The island of Malta contains about 50,000 acres of culti-

vated land. The island of Gozo, 10,000¹. About half is private property, the remainder may be nearly divided between the crown and the church. The leases are from one to eight years, and long leases from nine to 100 years. The rent for the best land is 3*l.* per acre, but there is not much of that quality; the average rental is 1*l.* an acre. Property on short lease cannot be sub-let without the consent of the proprietor. In long leases sub-letting is allowed. The repairs fall upon the proprietor in the short leases, and upon the tenant in the long ones.

In all arable lands it is prohibited to sow wheat and barley two years in succession.

The land measures made use of in this country are salms, tumoli, mondelli, and misure. The salms contain sixteen tumoli, the tumolo six mondelli, the mondello ten misure.

¹ The superficies of the island is measured at ninety-four square miles, that of Gozo at twenty-six. The number of acres given under the head of produce in the return, at page 221, is 100,501; but 120 square miles only contain 76,800 acres, consequently there is an error of 23,701 to be accounted for. The measurement of the superficies is correct; but it is made upon the plane of a trigonometrical survey, consequently the inequalities of ground are not allowed for; and although there is no hill exceeding 700 feet in height, there are constant undulations in the surface of both islands. But another cause of error exists in estimating the number of acres; no chain survey has ever been made of the islands, and the number of acres is stated from the calculations of the principal magistrate in each of the villages, and it is presumed that when property is so intersected as it is in Malta, and that more than a third of the surface is barren rock, much error prevails in the calculations.

The tumolo contains 256 Maltese square canne. The usual calculation is that three tumoli, four mondelli and a half, are equivalent to an English acre, so that a salm contains four acres and four-fifteenths.

The price of the best land is from 5 to 600 scudi the tumolo (50*l.* sterling). Land of moderate quality sells from 2 to 400 scudi, and the lowest from 2 to 100 scudi, and even less (16*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*). The best land rents for about fifteen scudi (1*l.* 5*s.*); the second quality for about ten scudi, and the inferior from five scudi to two scudi (8*s.* 4*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*).

A man farming ten salms is obliged to maintain constantly two labourers, who generally receive from 100 to 120 scudi a-year (8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to 10*l.*) each, and the farmer generally feeds them in whole or in part. His other labourers he pays as he wants them, by the day. The price of labour was in 1816 as high as seven and eight, and even ten tari (11½*d.* 1*s.* 1½*d.* and 1*s.* 4½*d.*) per diem, in the summer time. In 1820 it was reduced to six and five tari (10*d.* and 8¼*d.*). At present the price is about four tari (6¾*d.*) per diem, and for this the labourers are obliged to furnish their own tools. Sometimes they are paid in money, at others in meschiato (that is a mixture of wheat and barley). When they are paid according to the latter mode, they receive two tumoli each a-week; and this is the method which is generally preferred both by the labourers and farmers.

The principal objects of agriculture are cotton, grain, and sulla; and it is to these that the farmers principally direct their attention; they, however,

extensively cultivate beans, peas, a species of wild pea called *cucciarda*, carrots, melons, potatoes, cabbages, cauliflowers, and other articles of that description: these are principally cultivated as intermediate crops between cotton and corn.

In general the farmers divide their lands in two equal portions; on the one half they cultivate cotton, and on the other grain. The most important object of agriculture is cotton, and it is estimated that one-tenth of the island is annually dedicated to its cultivation. This always requires good land, and its cultivation is attended with considerable trouble and expense. The farmer begins to prepare his land for cotton in August, by spreading a quantity of strong manure over it, and breaking it up with large hoes and pickaxes to a considerable depth. In this state it is left till the rain commences, that the manure may be well washed in, and this mode of manuring is generally sufficient for four years, and sometimes even for five, when the land is of a very good quality. The large clods are now broken with hoes, and the ground levelled. After this it is ploughed two or three times, and it is then in a fit state to receive the seed, which is simply scattered over it by hand, and covered by means of a kind of rude harrow. The early cotton is sown in April, but it is frequently not put into the ground until May. If rain follows, this sowing is sufficient; but if there succeeds a continuance of dry weather the seed is lost, and the farmer is then obliged to have recourse to a very expensive mode of sowing, by making separate holes for the seed, and pouring water upon them. When the plants begin

to shew themselves above the surface of the ground, the land is hoed two or three times; and when they have grown to the height of two or three inches, the tops of them are nipped off to prevent their running to stalk. This is the last operation previous to collecting the crop, which takes place in the months of October and November.

Sometimes the cotton plants are left in the ground for two years, and even for three; but the most common mode, except where the land is very fine, is to change the crop every year. The next important object is grain; but a small quantity of pure wheat is sown in this island. In general wheat is mixed in equal quantities with barley, and it is termed *meschiato*; and the reason they give for cultivating it in this manner is, that the strong stalks of the barley afford protection to the wheat. This species of cultivation is not attended with a great deal of expense to the farmers; for supposing that the land has been already manured, one ploughing is sufficient to prepare it for sowing, and when sown it is ploughed a second time merely for the purpose of covering the seed. After the plants begin to shew themselves, the ground is hoed, and this is the last operation before the harvest. The corn is beat out on the ground (which is prepared on purpose) by cattle; and if the farmer is obliged to hire animals for this operation, the custom is to give the straw, or a part of it, for their use. The barley is afterwards separated from the wheat by means of sieves, with great dexterity.

The next object is *sulla*. This is generally cultivated as an intermediate crop between cotton and corn, but in that case, it must be taken off green.

For this, as for grain, the land only requires one ploughing, and it is generally sown in August, after the corn is taken off. When cotton is to follow, it is cut in March and April, the roots being left in the ground, which are said to be of service to the land, and equivalent to one year's manure. When sulla is left to come to its maturity, no other crop can follow that year. It sometimes happens that the seed remains in the ground a whole year, to the great loss and inconvenience of the farmer. In this case it produces a very early crop the succeeding year. When sulla is not cultivated as the intermediate crop, they generally plant either beans, or peas, or vegetables, which are taken off the ground in time to admit the corn or cotton which is to succeed.

According to the common estimate, a tumolo of land produces a quintal of cotton in the pod, and it requires three quintals of cotton in the pod to produce a quintal of cotton wool. Some lands, however, under very favourable circumstances, will give a quintal and a half of cotton in the pod, but this is not very usual. The expense attending the production of one quintal of cotton wool is now from thirty to thirty-five scudi (2*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*), exclusive of the rent of the land, which varies from ten to fifteen scudi (16*s.* 8*d.* to 25*s.*) the tumolo. However, it may be remarked, that the lands which let for fifteen scudi (25*s.*) will generally produce somewhat more than one quintal of cotton wool upon every three tumoli; therefore the average expense of its cultivation may be stated from sixty to sixty-five scudi (5*l.* to 5*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*). The price of cotton in the market is at present exceedingly low, being no more

than sixty-five scudi (5*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*) the quintal. However, the farmer, besides the cotton, gets something for the seeds and the stalks. It is considered that when the cotton sells for five scudi (8*s.* 4*d.*) the pesa, or 100 scudi (8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) the quintal, the cultivator is well paid; and, in fact, this seems to have been always considered the criterion by which the gain or loss of the cultivator is to be estimated.

The expense of cultivating grain is much less, being, including rent, on an average, not more than from fifteen to seventeen scudi (1*l.* 5*s.* to 1*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*) a tumolo. A tumolo of land will produce about a salm and a half of meschiato. The price of this, when the wheat and barley are in equal quantities, is one scudi and two taris (1*s.* 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ *d.*) the tumolo (the measures of capacity have the same denominations as the land measures, and are divided in the same manner), making the value of the produce about twenty-seven scudi (2*l.* 5*s.*); but as there is generally more barley than wheat in their meschiato, and only the very best lands will produce a salm and a half, the average value of the produce of a tumolo of land may be stated at about twenty scudi (1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*). To this is to be added the straw, the value of which is generally from four to five scudi (6*s.* 8*d.* to 8*s.* 4*d.*). However, a portion of this is very frequently given in lieu of payment for the animals hired to tread out the grain.

The expense attending the cultivation of sulla is nearly the same as that of grain, and the produce is also nearly the same in regard to value, if it is allowed to dry on the ground. If it is cut green, the produce of a tumolo is valued from eight to ten scudi (13*s.* 4*d.*

to 16s. 8d.). The beans, peas, cucciarda, &c., may be considered as producing the same, in point of value, as the green sulla.

It is from the sale of their cotton and cattle that the farmers expect principally to be enabled to pay their rents, and replace their stock. The wheat and barley they generally keep for their own use, and for the purpose of paying their servants and labourers, selling only the surplus; and they generally cultivate no more sulla than they require for the use of their cattle.

In 1830, three quintals of pods were gathered from one tumolo of land; this is the largest produce known. A quintal and a half is considered as a good crop in good land. The following is an average of the produce of good land:—

Salm of Good Land Cultivated in	Seed.	
Wheat	1 Salm	20 Salms—in very good land—24.
Meschiato	1 do.	20 Ditto
Barley	1 do.	20 Ditto—in some very good lands—30.
Sulla	4 do.	192 Loads.
Cotton, 1 Tumolo	5 Rotoli	150 Rotoli.

The following returns shew the state of agriculture for seven years:—

State of Cultivation, and Number of Stock in Malta and Gozo since 1828.

Nature of Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.											Number of Live Stock.						
Years.	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans and other Pulse	Cotton.	Vegetable Fruits, &c.	Forage.	Sesamum.	Cumin Seed	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of Uncultivated Land.	Horses, Mules, and Asses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Swine.
1828	11857	9829	5808	11395	11754	3681	5448	122	44	3536	63469	50639	4043	5505	12373	3938	3845
1829	10338	9133	5720	5404	9516	5684	7778	71	740	9185	63569	46909	5080	10814	13081	4227	505
1830	10836	9624	6344	4018	10489	5285	6589	60	374	2701	56320	46319	4905	6457	13948	4729	..
1831	10788	9432	7424	5205	12454	4894	7721	266	297	2950	61481	46510	5368	7193	14248	4454	..
1832	8499	10275	8110	4484	11236	6163	8445	159	474	3550	61395	46848	5574	6078	12473	4686	..
1833	8751	7197	5820	4837	11553	5121	7752	216	1028	2787	55062	46120	4602	5951	14785	4150	..
Malta Gozo Cumino	9090	4954	5937	3121	7364	3812	5120	234	1313	2031	42976	45996	3700	5773	8725	3234	3845
	539	3245	85	579	2615	923	1140	19	..	617	9762	1767	1275	440	4723	1020	505
	1	4	8	..	..	13	5	..	..	..	31	572	3	7	8	15	..
Total..	9630	8203	6030	3700	9979	4748	6265	253	1313	2648	52769	48335	4978	6220	13457	4269	4350

In the years preceding 1834, Malta, Gozo and Cumino, are included in one return, which I derive from the Colonial Office; the data for 1834 I have received from Sir F. Ponsonby, and therein the produce of each island is given separate, and accurate, for I have compared it with the Colonial Office Returns.

Quantity of Produce, and Prices thereof,

	Years.	Nature and Quantity of Produce, and								
		Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans.	Cotton.	Vegetables, Fruit, &c.	Green Peas.	Cumin Seed.	Forage.
		bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	per serna, or load of 10 bushels.
	1828	146787	184005	115623	22408	3135825	8227699	533575	10150	65867
	1829 {	123020	163887	102815	80134	4263498	20569210	196192	40950	100583
	1830 {	132711	161469	96044	58755	4973604	25295301	145035	134162	128613
	1831 {	46319	121612	82521	46849	4124150	25447581	88248	127284	366226
	1832 {	77739	218640	157672	57091	3445211	27556875	102211	209128	164831
	1833 {	78981	96188	54142	54285	3642429	28026228	*	975140	123850
Malta	1834 {	116046	120036	115998	35213	2347947	40562135		5654031	111710
Gozo		7780	81514	1960	12733	1392125	1623690		..	25860
Cumino		271	110	228	..	..	1750		..	500
Total..		123853	201660	118186	47946	3740072	42186575		5654031	138070

* Sesamum 813 bushels noted in this year.

in Malta and Gozo, since 1828.

Average Prices of each Description thereof.							
Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans.	Cotton.	Cumin Seed.	Sesamum.	Forage.
per bushel. 5s. 3d. 4s. 2d. to 6s. 9d. 5s. to 5s. 1d. 3s. 2d. to 6s. 4. 3s. 9d. to 5s. 6d. 3s. 9d. to 5s. 8d. 4s. 7d. to 6s. 1d.	per bushel. 3s. 9d. 3s. 1d. to 4s. 2d. 3s. 4d. to 3s. 9d. 2s. 10d. to 4s. 5d. 2s. 3d. to 4s. 2d. 2s. 6d. to 4s. 2d. 2s. 6d. to 4s.	per bushel. 2s. 5d. 2s. 1d. to 3s. 4d. 2s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. 2s. 1d. to 3s. 4d. 1s. 10d. to 2s. 6d. 1s. 10d. to 3s. 3d. 1s. 10d. to 2s. 11d.	per bushel. 1s. 2s. 3d. to 3s. 7d. 2s. 6d. 2s. 3d. to 3s. 4d. 1s. 10d. to 3s. 4d. 1s. 10d. to 2s. 9d. 2s. 1d. to 2s. 3d.	per lb. 2½d. 1d. to ½d. 1½d. 1d. 1d. 1d. to 2d. 2d. 3d.	per lb. 2d. 1d. to 3d. 1d. 1d. to 2d. 1d. to 2d. 2d. 2d.	per lb. 5d. 1d. to 4d. 4d. 1d. ½d. to 1d. 8s. 5d. to 9s. 8d. a bl. 6s. 11d. to 10s. a bsl.	per serna, or load of 10 bushels. 1s. 3d. 1s. 1d. to 2s. 1d. 8d. to 1s. 1s. 8d. 1s. 11d. to 2s. 1d. 6d. to 2s. 1d. 1s. 4d. to 2s. 1d.

The following is a statement of all foreign wheat sold and delivered for the consumption of the public, from the year 1823 (exclusive of the supplies for the service of the army and navy), and a return of the native produce of wheat and meschiato (one-third wheat and two-thirds barley) from the year 1828.

Years.	Total Consumption of Foreign Wheat.	Native Crops, From 1828 to 1834. both inclusive.	
		Wheat.	Meschiato.
	Salms.		
1823	59444		
1824	68327		
1825	59785		
1826	60641		
1827	67756		
1828	49854	Salms. 19069	Salms. 23948
1829	54960	15843	25040
1830	49904	17757	21195
1831	65459	5682	15538
1832	53612	9986	29914
1833	59588	9983	12787
1834	55150	15711	26539
	704480		
N.B.—The native crop is estimated, upon an average, at 30,000 salms.			

The average prices of wheat sold to the public in Malta, during the undermentioned periods, has been :

Years.		Number of Years.	Wheat per Salm, sterling.		Bread per lb. avoirdupois.	
From	To					
			s.	d.	s.	12ths of a penny.
Govt. Monopoly.	1781	1790	10	40	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 2
	1791	1800	10	46	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 5
	1801	1814	14	62	8	1 10
	1815	..	1	66	8	1 11
	1816	..	1	64	2	1 10
	1817	..	1	66	8	1 11
	1818	..	1	66	8	1 11
	1819	..	1	55	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 7
	1820	..	1	43	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 4
	1821	..	1	48	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 6
	1822	..	1	40	10	1 2
	1823	..	1	33	4	1 1
Open Trade.	1824	..	1	31	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 0
	1825	..	1	36	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 2
	1826	..	1	37	4	1 1
	1827	..	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	39	8	1 1
	1828	..	1	44	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 6
	1829	..	1	44	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 5
	1830	..	1	40	5	1 2
	1831	..	1	43	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 5
	1832	..	1	43	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 3
	1833	..	1	41	5	1 2
	1834	..	1	42	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 3

In order to shew the state of cultivation in different parts of the island, I subjoin the following minute return, as laid before the Board of Trade for the past year :—

Return of the Produce, Stock, &c.

Name of Casa or District.	CROPS.											
	Nature of the Crops, and Number of Acres of Land in each Crop.											
	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans and other Pulse.	Cotton.	Vegetables, Fruits, &c.	Forage.	Sesamum.	Cumin Seed.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of uncultivated Land.
Notabile & Dingli	670	706	120	306	511	386	453	...	...	186	3338	540
Fornaro.....	222	328	382	178	222	439	799	...	...	133	2703	...
Birchircara	362	415	278	16	255	140	226	2	82	75	1851	...
Zeitun	2136	402	1647	1245	1731	455	1465	18	53	180	9332	124
Zebbug.....	289	661	41	152	855	408	333	...	...	68	2807	115
Musta	1594	262	968	120	1025	573	715	...	...	164	5421	159
Zurrico	590	1119	1492	143	124	93	80	18	84	99	3842	2700
Zabbar	130	54	735	113	275	242	122	25	33	96	1325	66
Safi and Chercop	13	124	413	111	62	49	155	36	35	178	1176	...
Seggieni.....	200	955	69	82	650	1110	100	4	14	257	3441	510
Naxaro	564	204	559	36	821	40	262	...	...	22	2508	38237
Gudia	133	96	351	78	679	22	103	24	64	40	1590	22
Ottard	98	80	67	44	89	62	61	...	...	35	541	44
Lia.....	122	109	80	25	104	13	71	...	...	11	535	...
Micabiba.....	56	195	104	33	87	9	33	...	...	24	541	22
Crendi.....	62	235	111	27	235	18	13	4	36	13	754	62
Luca.....	53	67	133	36	36	311	44	...	44	44	768	1776
Asciach	23	267	445	27	36	44	36	...	4	27	909	53
Gargur.....	320	129	284	22	346	31	155	...	5	44	1336	40
Balzan.....	42	87	49	5	24	11	44	...	4	...	266	...
Tarxen	64	55	122	33	162	49	91	16	16	20	628	119
Malta	7743	6550	7950	2832	8337	4230	5633	147	474	1716	45612	44589
Gozo.....	750	3725	142	1652	2899	1896	2801	12	...	1834	15717	1371
Cumino	...	...	18	...	...	37	...	...	...	...	66	888
Grand Total.....	8499	10275	8110	4484	11236	6163	8445	159	474	3550	61395	46848

Cumin seeds and aniseeds are successfully cultivated, and exported in considerable quantity to the surrounding countries in the Mediterranean, as well as to England and America; and the cumin seeds of Malta are as good as any, if not the best, in the world. The squills grown and dried in Malta are

of each District in Malta, in 1834.

STOCK.				PRODUCE.									
Number of				Nature of the Produce, and Quantity of each.									
Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Wheat.	Meschiato.	Barley.	Beans.	Cotton.	Vegetables, Fruits, &c.	Green Peas.	Cumin Seed.	Forage.	Sesamum.
				Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Soma.*	Soma.
333	380	1097	375	7000	22372	1496	889	191625	1726900	10325	...	3761	...
611	1080	280	202	7875	15750	17325	3937	14000	4133115	...	...	17000	...
246	591	292	294	5827	7670	8646	291	86800	539000	7875	41650	7618	8
320	200	530	500	4725	1417	7875	984	175000	1944250	3325	15750	1010	118
244	394	417	210	1677	7512	1260	4803	270375	4022725	1050	...	13016	31
480	584	1272	351	68159	9079	24168	866	369075	174725	5775	...	25010	23
205	112	413	69	874	5756	8071	4410	57575	588525	1400	20825	1966	31
235	284	265	124	1519	1882	9946	779	82775	2036650	1837	16275	2980	30
44	103	165	25	157	2362	4725	1181	17500	1050000	4725	23625	1960	Lbs. 4585 Soma
158	242	294	58	2638	17569	2598	2023	237825	5202050	1050	8750	3555	23
289	324	860	219	7851	4410	15253	724	135800	128625	...	...	75	46
77	121	211	83	748	1488	8993	834	49210	395325	...	30773	3992	94
47	70	209	58	677	2496	2748	63	28875	520800	...	...	3280	...
51	30	106	72	2126	1055	1606	78	51450	105175	...	...	2248	...
37	43	97	25	212	3197	3331	354	41825	26477	...	6475	936	8
60	70	90	52	330	4488	2598	771	10311	14700	1050	7875	86	...
36	99	233	60	708	2126	6536	1771	50750	87500	350	17500	980	...
68	81	305	155	496	7599	12631	126	36750	157500	...	3328	700	...
132	280	397	98	2919	3850	8457	960	61915	1698683	39200	7262	3446	...
43	56	69	27	567	2142	1535	118	11025	50750	...	3790	1500	...
57	378	219	283	567	1787	4575	779	63525	175000	...	5250	5790	70
3773	5522	7811	3345	67652	126007	154373	26741	2043986	26351475	77962	209128	100909	
1799	549	4662	1336	10087	92633	2898	30350	1401225	1187900	24249	...	63402	
2	7	...	5	...	...	401	...	...	17500	...	...	...	
5574	6078	12473	4686	77739	218640	157672	57091	3445211	27556875	102211	209128	164311	

* Or loads of ten bundles.

found to produce the best oxamel attainable from that bulb; and the quantity of oranges hitherto furnished by Malta to the tables of the luxurious in France and England, might be greatly increased. Indeed, the oranges of Malta are confessedly the finest of the Mediterranean, and its melons are superior to the best

of the southern countries of Europe. There are a variety of other delicate fruits. Vegetation of aromatic plants and herbs of every sort, aided by rich pastures refreshed by the regular falling of nocturnal dews, enable the natives to rear considerable herds of cattle and flocks of sheep and goats, whose flesh, aromatized by excellent food, possesses an exquisite flavour. Poultry are plentiful and excellent. Quails, and a great diversity of other wild-fowl, never fail to come in vast flights at the time of their annual migrations.

Much attention is bestowed on the management of bees : a great many hives are kept in several parts of the island, from which they yearly procure a large stock of deliciously-flavoured honey. Great pains are also bestowed on the breeds of asses and mules, and the qualities of these useful animals have been highly improved by the inhabitants. The asses, especially, are well known for their unparalleled strength and beauty ; they always sell at a high price.

The annexed return of the number of cattle, &c. in the islands of Malta and Gozo, 1st January, 1835, has been furnished me by Sir Frederick Ponsonby.

	Bullocks.	Sheep.	Goats.	Swine.
In Malta	4437	8501	3213	3845
In Gozo	447	4731	1035	405

Return of the number of carts and caleches in Malta and Gozo, which pay licences, 1st January, 1835.

	Malta.	Gozo.	Totals.
Carts	1137	25	1162
Caleches	264	14	278
			1440

Carts employed solely on the farms are exempted from license. The number may be estimated, in the two islands, at about 800. The licence on carts was taken off on the 1st April, 1835.

A catalogue of plants which grow in Malta and Gozo, is too voluminous for insertion in this edition; it will be found in Vol. V. of my "History of the British Colonies."

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—There cannot be expected much variety under this head; all the domesticated animals thrive in Malta, and the mules and asses are remarkable for their strength and beauty. The Maltese dog, formerly so much celebrated, is now, I believe, extinct. The goats are of a very fine breed, but the horned cattle are small, and principally imported from Sicily, Barbary, and the adjacent coasts. Snakes are to be found, but they are not poisonous. Birds of various kinds migrate to the island at different periods, and the hawks of Malta were formerly much celebrated; the bees were also renowned, and indeed continue to yield such excellent aromatic honey, that it is conjectured the island was thence called "*Melita*" by the Greeks. Mosquitoes and other insects abound. Among the different species of caterpillar found at Malta, there is one of a very singular conformation, having no feet.

FISH of various kinds are plentiful.—The dory, rock-cod, and a species of whiting, popularly called the "lupo," are excellent. The cray-fish also, found on the rocks in the island of Gozo, are enormous in size, and of very fine flavour. One of the most re-

markable fish is the “*pholis dactylus*,” which abounds in the harbour, forming for itself a complete “habitat” in the soft rock, which is perforated as regularly by these creatures as if the perforation had been effected with an augur, while they approach each other so closely and so regularly, that several portions of the rock appear like the wood-work of a cartridge box.

A catalogue of the different kinds of fish on the coast of Malta is given in my large edition.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION AT DIFFERENT PERIODS—LANGUAGE—RELIGION
—MANNERS—CUSTOMS—INSTITUTIONS, &c.

WHEN or by whom Malta was first peopled is unknown; according to fabular tradition, the island was primarily tenanted by a race of giants. When in possession of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians it was probably thickly inhabited, owing to the extensive commerce carried on; but the earliest data I can obtain are those given by Boisgelin, who says, that in 1559, after the raising of the famous siege of Malta by the Turks, the island contained only 10,000 inhabitants: in 1632, without reckoning the knights,

&c. of the Order, and ecclesiastics and officers of the Holy Brotherhood, the number of the inhabitants amounted to 51,750 men, women, and children.

According to the records the population of the two islands of Malta and Gozo was in 1590, mouths, 28,864; in 1617, 43,798; in 1670, 60,000; in 1780, 100,000. In 1775 there were computed to be in Malta and Gozo, native Catholic inhabitants, 121,507; the regular militia, 16,000 (effective men). The loss during the siege of the French, in Valetta, from 1798 to 1800, amounted to 20,000, including women and children; independent of the troops Buonaparte forcibly took with him to Egypt.

The next document I can find gives the population of Malta and Gozo, as extracted from *L'Almanacco delle Isole di Malta e Gozo* for the year 1807:—

Catholic Natives of Malta.—The Capital Notabile (Citta Vecchia, or Medina), and its suburbs, 3731; Valetta, and its suburb Floriana (city) 24,546; Cospicua (city), 6224; Vittoriosa (city), 3300; Senglea (city), 4152; Birchircara (1st casal, or Burgh), 3810; Naxaro (2nd do.) 3020; Curmi (3rd do.) 3186; Zurrico (4th do.) 3016; Zeitun, (5th do.) 4024; Gudia (6th do.) 890; Siggeri (7th do.) 2715; Zebug (8th do.) 4026; Attard (9th do.) 731; Musta, (10th do.) 3003; Micabiba (11th do.) 703; Crendi (12th do.) 924; Hasciack (13th do.) 1003; Zabbar (14th do.) 2542; Dingli (15th do.) 180; Tarxien (16th do.) 910; Gargur (17th do.) 949; Safi (18th do.) 178; Chercop (19th do.) 300; Luca (20th do.) 836; Balzan (21st do.) 444; Lia (22d do.) 882; total in Malta, 80,225.

From the registers of the parochial priests :—

Catholic Natives of Gozo.—Castello e Rabato, 5100; Caccia (casal) 1469; Garba (ditto) 1459; Nadur (ditto) 1800; Zeudia (ditto) 1364; Saimat (ditto) 869; Zebbug (ditto) 768; total in Gozo, 12,829.

From the registers of the parochial priests :—

In Malta, 80,225; in Gozo, 12,829; total native Catholics, 93,054. Other inhabitants and domesticated strangers, estimated, 22,100; absent, estimated by register, 7650.—Grand total, 122,804.

The number of foreigners residing in Malta during the six or seven years preceding the plague of 1813, was estimated at from 30,000 to 40,000. Many houses were fitted up like ships, with tiers of berths, and several large vessels were converted into floating hotels.

In 1824 the population of Malta alone was *estimated* by the deputy inspector of police as follows :—

Population of Malta, March, 1824.—La Valetta and Floriana, 25,546; the three cities on the other side of the harbour, 18,649; Notabile and Dingli, 5166; Zebbug, 4776; Siggieni, 3373; Crendi, 1052; Micabiba, 814; Zurrigo, 3618; Safi, 227; Chircop, 315; Asciach, 1136; Gudia, 1040; Zeitun, 5440; Zabbar, 3537; Tarxien, 1011; Luca, 1268; Curmi, 4130; Birchircara, 5253; Balzan, 633; Lia, 1039; Attard, 907; Musta, 3369; Nasciaro, 2965; Gargur, 1139; total 96,404.

The estimate of the population of Valetta, Floriana, and the three cities on the other side of the harbour,

is only to the end of the year 1823. The villages are to the month of March, 1824.

The following return of Malta alone, from 1824 to 1828, has been furnished me by Sir Frederick Ponsonby, together with the census of 1834 :—

Return of the Population of Malta, during the following years.

Years.	Number of the Population.	Number of Deaths.	Under what Age died.						Remarks.
			Infants under 8 years.	Children from 8 to 14.	Youths from 15 to 28.	Men from 29 to 50.	Old from 51 to 70.	Decrepit from 71 upwards.	
1824	96404	2345	1125	80	158	231	372	379	During this period of five years, there died each year of apoplexy, about 120; of dropsy, 200; of marasmus, 200; of dentition, 550; of dysentery, 130; of diarrhoea, 280; of miscarriage, 120; still born, 30; of debility (infants who died soon after birth,) 150; of phthisis pulmonalis, 100; of nervous and bilious fevers, 170. During this period, of those who died, no one had reached the age of 100; the oldest did not exceed 98 years: of this age about four or five in each year; about 30 individuals died annually of 90 and upwards.
1825	97627	2612	1276	82	179	293	398	384	
1826	98739	2277	1090	62	152	330	370	373	
1827	99549	2434	1180	60	160	260	385	389	
1828	100949	2592	1260	79	178	291	390	394	

The returns to the Colonial Office give the following as the number of inhabitants in both Malta and Gozo :—

Population of Malta and Gozo.

Years.	White and Free Coloured People.		Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.			
1823		112204	...	...	...
1824		114106	2204	857	2631
1825		115155	4075	736	3026
1826		116505	3973	706	2622
1827		116490	3760	633	2738
1828	59354	59296	3760	684	2964
1829	59239	60537	3722	720	2592
1830	59482	60480	4027	760	4133
1831	59762	61077	4115	775	2938
1832	60594	61669	3739	700	2753
1833	60493	61563	3824	830	3604
1834	60252	61674	3833	862	3090

The annexed shews the population of Malta and Gozo in 1834¹:—

	Males.	Females.	Totals.		Population to the Square Mile
			Males.	Females.	
MALTA:					
Natives.....	47321	51606	52407	53152	1111 ¹⁴ / ₉₅
British Residents	553	480			
Foreigners	1899	491			
Kings Troops*	2323	...			
Wives of Do.	...	262			
Children of Do.	245	258			
Persons connected with the } Troops, not Soldiers	37	32			
Children of Do.	29	23			
Gozo:					
Natives.....	7837	8515	7845	8522	606 ⁵ / ₂₇
British Residents	8	7			
			60257	61674	
			121926		

¹ The number of prisoners in 1834 was—males 331, females 24; of debtors, males 15; for misdemeanors, males 170, females 11; of felons, males 145, females 12; of prisoners tried, males 316; females 24; ditto untried, Males 15; employed at hard labour 225; ditto, but not hard labour, 101, not employed, 29; punished for offences within the prison, 47; cases of sickness within the year 462; of death 2.

* Exclusive of the Malta Fencible Regiment, the men of which are returned with the native population.

The population of Valetta and Floriana, up to the
31st December, 1826 . . . was 26,100

Ditto	Ditto	at Vittoriosa	4482	} . 19,706
Ditto	Ditto	at Senglea	5250	
Ditto	Ditto	at Cospicua	9974	

Total 45,806

It is difficult to form any estimate of the number of Maltese who are residing in the Turkish dominions, or in other countries bordering the Mediterranean. For the last five years an account has been kept of the departures and arrivals, by which it appears that about 10,000 have departed in each of those years, and about 9000 have returned.

It is asserted that the natives of Malta are long lived, but it is to be regretted that we have not in the lists of deaths until of late years the ages of the deceased. Abela states instances of persons living to 80, 90, 100, 105, 107, and 110 years. He notices one man, a native of Zabbar, who lived to near 120 years of age, and preserved his strength, his teeth, and in part the colour of his hair; and another, a resident in the civil hospital at Citta Vecchia, completed 120 years, retaining his memory and judgment. It is asserted by the same authority, that some of the ancient inhabitants lived to 130 years of age, owing to the purity of the air, and their temperate mode of living.

Dr. Hennen constructed the following:—

Comparative Table of Births and Deaths among the Inhabitants of Malta, from the Year 1819 to the Year 1823 inclusive.

Years.	Mortality.		Total Mortality.	Births.	Increase of Births.
	Throughout the Island.	In the Hospitals.			
1819	2029	367	2396	3687	1291
1820	2297	366	2663	3761	1098
1821	1912	354	2266	3468	1202
1822	2310	356	2666	3219	553
1823	2566	363	2929	3388	459
Total	11114	1806	12920	17523	4603

It would appear from the foregoing, that the population was then slowly increasing, the births preponderating over the deaths. The annexed table I have been favoured with by Sir F. Ponsonby. His excellency has not informed me whether it includes Gozo or otherwise; it will be seen that it differs from the preceding table; in some years the excess of births is very slight.

Years.	Total Number of		Excess of Births.	Years.	Total Number of		Excess of Births.
	Births.	Deaths.			Births.	Deaths.	
1819	3687	2029	1658	1827	3205	2444	761
1820	3761	2297	1464	1828	3171	2538	633
1821	3468	1912	1556	1829	3288	2302	986
1822	3219	2310	909	1830	3499	3407	92
1823	3388	2566	822	1831	3513	2582	931
1824	3568	2345	1223	1832	3263	2468	795
1825	3497	2612	885	1833	3329	3171	158
1826	3389	2284	1105	1834	3312	2732	580
Total	27977	18355	9622	Total	26580	21644	4936

The Maltese are generally of middle stature, with robust frames, and small hands and feet; the hair black, and sometimes inclined to frizzle; lips frequently thick, and skin swarthy among the common people where exposed to the atmosphere; the eye dark and bright, and among the higher classes of females, remarkable for that fulness and languishing beauty which constitutes the great charm of oriental women. In some of the villages, such as the Casal of Zurrico, there are a remarkable number of blue-eyed persons to be met with. In general there is throughout the villages a good deal of the Spanish character displayed, but in the cities, and among the higher orders, a sort of French and Greek character is combined. The men are industrious, active, frugal; attached to their country, passive, but yet nowise deficient in courage, as they have often shewn, and they are considered the best seamen in the Mediterranean. Those in easy circumstances dress like other Europeans, but the lower orders are clothed in a loose cotton shirt, over which is a wide vest, or jacket, with silver, sometimes golden buttons, a long twisted scarf, wound several times round the body, with very often a sheathed knife placed therein; loose trowsers, leaving the legs bare from nearly the knees downwards, and very peculiar shoes called *korch*, which is a leathern sole, fastened with strings, or thongs, to the foot and leg, nearly like the old Roman sandal. The head in winter is covered with a woollen cap of different colours, having a hood attached, and falling down on the back; in summer, large straw hats are worn. The women are attached

to their primitive dress, consisting of a short cotton shift, a petticoat (generally of a blue colour), an upper robe opening at the side, and a corset with sleeves. The hair, covered with pomatum and powder, is arranged in a high cone in front of the head, and the face is concealed by a large black silken veil called *faldetta*, which the wearer adroitly shifts when exposing her features to a side or full view. Many ladies of the upper class have recently adopted the English costume, except during the time of performing their religious duties, when they appear at church in their ancient costume.

The Maltese marry early; instances are not rare where girls have been mothers at thirteen years of age; they suffer little in childbirth; twins are a common occurrence, but no instance of triplits have ever been heard of in the island; and when we speak of such occurrences as not unfrequent in England, they shake their heads in emphatic silence. Deformity is exceedingly rare, and monstrosity still more so¹; in early infancy the children are swathed round from the shoulders to the toes, including the arms, which are laid close along the sides, so as to present a striking resemblance to an Egyptian mummy. Notwithstanding this apparently unnatural restraint, the use of the limbs is early acquired; a crippled or an impotent child is a rare sight; and the activity of the Maltese, especially as swimmers and divers, is very great. In some cases, weakly or diseased chil-

¹ In the female hospital there are two preparations of monstrous twins; one pair joined by the backs, and the other by the bellies.

dren are taught to draw their nutriment from the goats; but in general there is no difference between the food of the infant and the adult, except in quantity; the child scarcely dismissed from the breast swallowing oil, cheese, salt fish, vegetables, &c. with all the *gusto* of their parents, whose principal diet is raw vegetables, fruits, salads, &c. with a little brown bread, maccaroni, oil, garlic, cheese, and a salt sardine or anchovy, eaten raw; a draught of Sicilian wine closes the meal. Coffee and iced water are the only luxuries common to all ages and sexes: even among the higher classes, a very small quantity of animal food is used. Fish is very abundant, and none allowed to be sold twenty-four hours after it is caught. Tobacco, in the form of smoking, is absolutely an article of diet, but unaccompanied by drinking of wine, &c.

Bathing in the sea is a very general practice among both sexes, the time chosen being from sunset until near midnight. The siesta, or mid-day sleep is in Malta an universal custom in summer; from twelve to two is the hour of dinner and of siesta, and during that period no respectable person that can avoid it, is seen about the streets. Of their amusements, music is one of the most general, and it extends to the lower classes, who meet in groups at the corners of the streets, singing extempore verses to old national airs, the burden of the song being probably the praises of their mistresses, or some sarcastic observations on their rivals. Dancing, horse and boat-racing, processions in honour of the numerous saints, with an occasional village maypole festival, form the

chief relaxations, and it is an excellent feature in the national character that they are unaccompanied by drunkenness and quarrelling. The promenades are numerous, and much frequented; that of the botanic garden, in the suburbs, is enlivened by the military music of the different regiments of the garrison. Beyond the ramparts, the places called Pietà Sliema, and St. Giuliano, present an animated scene of beautiful walks. The surrounding country is covered with a great number of elegant villas, some of which have been lately built, after their native manner, by several English gentlemen, who have chosen the charming environs of the capital as the scene of their residence.

LANGUAGE.—The upper class speak Italian; the language of the common people is a patois compounded of Arabic, German, Italian, and other languages. The Arabic, however, so far predominates, that the peasants of Malta and Barbary can without much difficulty understand each other. Captain Vella contends that the Maltese language, as it is generally spoken by the mass of the people, is still the original Punic¹, which has passed unaltered through the changes and revolutions of so many nations, which have successively occupied and oppressed the island of Malta. Some slight differences may be perceived, chiefly in

¹ The Rev. Mr. Hamilton, uncle to the distinguished professor of astronomy in Dublin, informed me lately that he is anxiously engaged in investigating the Carthaginian language. I would, therefore, suggest that the learned gentleman should compare the passages in Plautus with the Maltese dialect.

the pronunciation, in various parts of the island, but without disparagement to the language itself, whose substance is in every place the same. There is no national alphabet, but according to the fancy of the writer those of other tongues are adopted. English is becoming generally understood throughout the island; and the Italian ought to be got rid of as soon as practicable.

The Lord's Prayer in the Maltese language¹.
 "Missierna li inti fis meuiet jitkaddes ismech, tigi saltnatech icun li trit int chif fis sema hegda flart. Hhobsna ta culium atina illum u Ahhfrilna dnubietna chif ahhna nahhfru lil min hhata ghalina u laddah-hanna fittigrif ta tentazzioni isda ehhlisna middeni. Amen."

RELIGION.—A scrupulous attention to the rites of their church is characteristic of the Maltese, whose established faith is that of Rome. The landed property belonging to the church is considerable; and there are about 1000 secular and regular clergy in the two islands².

Previous to the year 1827, many of the churches enjoyed the privilege of sanctuary, and ecclesiastics were not under the jurisdiction of the civil tribunals: but a law was passed in that year abolishing those privileges, and the bishop's court has now jurisdiction only in spiritual matters. The archbishop of the island has now a seat in the legislative council.

¹ According to Anderson.

² By the calendar of 1742, it appears that there were then 2000 priests and ecclesiastics in Malta and Gozo, exclusive of the members of the order.

There is a Protestant clergyman, and the service is performed in a chapel in the governor's palace; it is not, however, large enough to contain half the Protestants who reside at Valetta, and it is a well founded subject of complaint that a church has not been built. A military chaplain performs service for the garrison, in a building not very suitable for the purpose: indeed, the want of any suitable Protestant church must appear very striking to those who visit the island, when it is recollected that it has been a British possession thirty-five years. The church service is now performed in Valetta in one of the lower offices of the palace, formerly either the kitchen or wine cellar of the grand master; and the accommodation on the other side of the water, in the Borgo, is worse, consisting only of what was a sort of storehouse of small dimensions.

EDUCATION is well attended to in Malta. There is a college in Valetta, instituted by the grand master Pinto in 1771; it is held in the convent of the suppressed Jesuits, and has lately undergone complete reform. Degrees in divinity, law, and physic are conferred under certain regulations; and there is a preparatory school attached to it, in which all boys are received upon payment of a trifle. The support of the college devolves upon government, as on the expulsion of the Jesuits from Malta, their property, which now amounts to about 700*l.* a-year, was allotted for the support of the university, and of a church which now costs the government 176*l.* per annum, the remainder being devoted to the university, in which there are 490 scholars; those in higher

schools (unless specially exempted by the council) pay 4s. 2d. each month, from which is defrayed the salary of the secretary (1l. 15s. 4d. per month), and certain pensions to superannuated professors. To this fund the students in medicine, surgery, and anatomy, do not contribute, but pay 4s. 2d. each month to their respective professors.

There are two normal schools, at which more than 1000 boys and girls are educated free of any expense. These schools, together with a small one at Gozo, are supported chiefly by government,—private subscriptions are however received. There was, for a considerable time, much jealousy on the part of the Catholic clergy on the subject of education, as it was feared that it might be made use of as the means of conversion. This feeling has subsided; and in one of the normal schools lately established, a canon of the church is the principal director.

The children are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and the rudiments of Italian grammar, and in some instances, English and Latin; the females are taught needlework, spinning, and weaving.

Of private schools there are eighty-two in Malta: viz. twenty-four in Valetta and Floriana; twenty-five in Vittoriosa, Sanglea, and Conspicua: and the remainder in the different casals, or villages. In Gozo there are six private seminaries, and a public free-school in Rabato, with thirty-five scholars.

THE PRESS scarcely deserves even naming. There is a single gazette under the controul of government, and all freedom or dissemination of public opinion by means of a newspaper, totally suppressed. This

is not as it should be; and it is to be hoped the Maltese will not be much longer permitted to continue in a state which no Englishman who loves freedom of discussion would wish to see perpetuated.

Libraries.—In the year 1761, the Baile De Tencen founded the public library of Malta, which was increased by many gifts from distinguished private individuals, princes and kings. The King of France contributed a select set of books to it; and it was privileged to receive copies of all works published at the royal press at Paris. The library formed at the general hospital was transferred to it, and a regulation was established, by which the books of all the deceased knights became its property; it also had an annuity of 300 crowns left in perpetuity to it, and derived some additional income by the sale of duplicates, insomuch that in 1798 the number of books, if we are to credit Boisgelin, amounted to upwards of 60,000. This library was, since the capture of the island from the French, removed to a large building adjoining the palace, formerly called the Conservatoria. It is a very respectable foundation, and contains a number of excellent and some very valuable works. This library is open to the public at certain hours of the day, but no books are lent out.

The garrison have a subscription library, both for reference and lending out; it was formed in 1806. The books are distributed under the five following heads, and the number of volumes as they stood in the library catalogue and supplement to February, 1824, is thus:—

	vols.
Divinity, Ethics, Arts and Sciences, . . .	426
History, Biography, Voyages, Travels,	
Military Publications,	835
Polite Literature, Poetry and Dramatic	
Works,	644
Novels and Romances,	356
Periodicals, Miscellaneous, &c.	273

There are also books on medicine, surgery, and the accessory sciences.

In the general hospital there is also a good library founded by the medical officers of the garrison.

The university of Malta grants degrees in medicine and chirurgery; and the Maltese physicians and surgeons are now principally educated in the island, many of them being possessed of considerable professional talents, to dispense which they are required to produce certificates to the government; their fees, however, are exceedingly small, as shown by the following schedule of doctors' fees, sanctioned by government in March, 1821.

	Scudi *	Taris †
For a visit by day in Valetta, or in the professor's place of residence	0	6
For a visit when accompanied with another professor	1	6
Ditto, between ten at night and four in the morning	2	6
A consultation by night	5	0
Ditto by day	2	6
For applying a blister, and dressing the same	1	3
Bleeding, cupping, or applying leeches	0	6

* The scudi is equal to 1s. 8d. sterling.

† The taris is equal to 1½d. sterling, fixed by government.

	Scudi	Taris
A visit from Valetta to Floriana, or to the Marina	1	3
Ditto ditto, by night.....	3	0
A visit when accompanied by another professor....	2	0
A consultation in the above places	3	0
A visit from Valetta to Cospicua, Vittorioso, or Senglea	2	6
Meeting a professor in those places	3	0
A consultation in those places	3	9
A visit from Valetta to Zabbar, Luca, Tarxien, Curmi, Birchircara, or Missida	3	0
Meeting a professor in the above places.....	3	4
A consultation in the above-named casals.....	4	0
A visit to the more interior casals	3	6
Meeting a professor in the said casals	4	0
A consultation in the said casals	5	0
The introduction of the catheter	2	6
The reduction of hernia	3	0
The operation for dropsy	2	6
Other operations, such as amputation, &c. shall be submitted for the consideration of the medical committee		
For a medical or surgical certificate	1	3
For a consultation in writing	2	6
The cure of a simple syphilitic complaint, if the patient goes to the professor's house	5	0

A complete mercurial course to be charged according to circumstances. Dressing wounds, bandaging and unbandaging fractures, shall be submitted for the consideration of the medical committee, to be decided upon according to the circumstances and time employed.

There are several domestic medicines in Malta deserving notice: the leading popular remedy is the oil of sweet almonds; this is quite a panacea, and had recourse to on all occasions; it is a good laxative.

Lemon juice is also a frequent application in domestic practice, especially in disorders of the eyes; and it appears to be a tolerably active stimulant, and useful in certain stages of disease. But very extraordinary is the "*aqua distillata catellorum*," or puppy water; it is not prepared like Ambrose Paré's celebrated emollient ointment, by stewing down the whelp with oil, but is effected simply by distillation; of course this is no more than distilled water, with a very minute admixture of the animal matter, capable of rising in the heat of 212. It is held to be sovereign in frights and the nervous affections of women, or "*scanto*," as they are called; and though an empirical trick, its employment is defended on a medical principle, viz. the violent reaction it produces when the patient is told of the remedy she has swallowed.

An absorbent earth found in some caves is used in all cases attended with acrimonious humours, and as a specific in fevers. It is said to be constantly regenerating from the exposure of the cave to the action of the atmosphere: the absorbent earth swells by the moisture it imbibes, and when one layer of the surface is removed, another comes in contact with the atmosphere, and its texture loosens and swells out as the preceding layer did, after the manner of slaked lime.

Another popular remedy is the sand-bath, and which is chiefly used for rachitis and pertussis. The patient is kept in the pit close covered up with sand for different periods from ten minutes to half an hour, a copious perspiration is produced, and is kept up by

the use of diluents and artificial warmth, after which a cordial is administered. It is said to be occasionally effectual.

HOSPITALS AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—There are two fine hospitals at Valetta, and one at Gozo, supported entirely by government; all persons are received therein who require medical aid: and there is also a public dispensary, where medicines are furnished gratis to those who require not in-door treatment. At Floriana, the suburbs of Valetta, there are two charitable institutions, one called *Ospizio*, the other the *House of Industry*: the first is for the reception of old men and women, and a part of the building is appropriated for the reception of the insane:—about 700 persons are maintained in this establishment.

The whole of the charitable institutions are under the management of a committee, chiefly composed of persons holding offices under government. The prisons, which are admirably managed as regards classification, cleanliness, and reformation, are under the same committee.

The following details, while they demonstrate the attention of the Maltese government to these useful charities, will prove interesting to benevolent individuals in our other colonies.

The *House of Industry* (founded by the Marquis of Hastings), is for the instruction and rearing up of poor female children and orphans, who when of a proper age are obliged to find work for themselves.

The number of inmates in the establishment is 250, besides sixty more girls of poor families, who come

twice a day from their homes to attend a day school within the premises of the institution.

The expense of each of the inmates for food, clothing, bedding, washing, and light, amounts, on an average, to about three-pence per day, or 4*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.* a year. Shoes, stockings, or *faldetta*, are not furnished as part of the clothing; but the girls generally procure these articles from the institution, paying for the same out of their earnings or premiums.

In the number of inmates are included about fifteen girls, whose relatives and friends pay to the institution for their maintenance, &c. at the rate of 8*s.* 4*d.* per month, or 5*l.* a year each.

Daily Diet Table for the Girls at the House of Industry.—For meat days—1½ lb. of bread; ¼ lb. of beef; 2 oz. of vermicelli; 2 oz. of fruit.

For fast days.—1½ lb. of bread; 3 oz. of vermicelli; 2 oz. of fruit; 2 eggs, or a proportion of salt fish, with oil, olives, or cheese, and a portion of suet for soup.

Proportions.—Cheese, 2 oz. each person; olives, 1 mondello for every twenty persons; salt fish, 1 rotolo for every eight persons; oil for ditto, 1 pint for every thirty persons; suet for soup, 1 ounce for every five persons.

Articles of Clothing supplied to each of the Girls in the Institution.—3 shifts; 3 jackets; 3 petticoats; 3 aprons; 1 pouch; 2 combs.

Bedding supplied to each of the Inmates.—2 blankets; 1 coverlet; 2 sheets; 3 bolster cases; 1 bed, consisting of two iron trestles and wooden bed boards, and 1 palliasse filled with straw.

CIVIL HOSPITALS.

[illegible]OSPIZIO AND LUNATIC ASYLUM.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180	181	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223	224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240	241	242	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	256	257	258	259	260	261	262	263	264	265	266	267	268	269	270	271	272	273	274	275	276	277	278	279	280	281	282	283	284	285	286	287	288	289	290	291	292	293	294	295	296	297	298	299	300	301	302	303	304	305	306	307	308	309	310	311	312	313	314	315	316	317	318	319	320	321	322	323	324	325	326	327	328	329	330	331	332	333	334	335	336	337	338	339	340	341	342	343	344	345	346	347	348	349	350	351	352	353	354	355	356	357	358	359	360	361	362	363	364	365	366	367	368	369	370	371	372	373	374	375	376	377	378	379	380	381	382	383	384	385	386	387	388	389	390	391	392	393	394	395	396	397	398	399	400	401	402	403	404	405	406	407	408	409	410	411	412	413	414	415	416	417	418	419	420	421	422	423	424	425	426	427	428	429	430	431	432	433	434	435	436	437	438	439	440	441	442	443	444	445	446	447	448	449	450	451	452	453	454	455	456	457	458	459	460	461	462	463	464	465	466
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Number of Inmates.	Daily Diet.	Average Expenses.
Poor { Men.....280	Bread.....20 oz.	For victualling each
Women 330	Paste for Soup..... 4 ...	Inmate, with the ex-
Ma- { Men..... 45	Meat, or Salt Fish $3\frac{3}{4}$...	pense of washing, fune-
niacs { Women 57	Cheese..... 2 ...	erals, and oil for light,
Female prisoners 20	Eggs, 2 in number.	2-8ths of a penny per
	Olives, 1-20th of a measure	diem.
Total ... 732	called mondello.	For medicine allowed
	Fruit, 2 oz.	to each Sick Inmate,
	Wine, $\frac{1}{2}$ a pint for Men.	about 6-12ths of a penny
	... $\frac{1}{4}$ do. for Women.	per diem.
	Vegetables, a sufficient quan-	For wear and tear of
	tity for Soup.	Clothing, Bedding, Fur-
	Fowls, Broth, and other ex-	niture, and utensils, cal-
	tra articles allowed to Sick	culated at 10s. each in-
	Inmates.	mate per annum.
	No wine allowed to Maniacs	
	or Convicts, except when	
	prescribed by the Surgeon.	

Public Dispensary.—The actual number of out-door patients furnished with medical and surgical aid and medicines during the year 1834, and the total yearly expense, is as follows, viz.—

	Number of Persons.
Medical cases	4,466
Surgical cases	13,176
	17,642

Total Yearly Expense.

	£	s.	d.
Cost of medicines, instruments, and surgical materials	146	10	9
Pay to the apothecary and porter	50	0	0
Gratuity to five medical officers for two years' service	44	0	0
	£240	10	9

Detail of the articles of bedding and clothing, &c. allowed in each institution :—

To every Patient in the Civil Hospital.—One wool mattress ; 1 palliasse ; 1 bolster ; 1 pillow and case ; 2 sheets, or more when required ; 1 blanket ; 1 coverlet ; 1 set of boards and trestles ; 1 bedside table, and all the necessary utensils ; 1 shirt ; 1 cap ; 1 long jacket ; 1 pair of trowsers. The last two articles only allowed to convalescents.

To every Inmate of the Ospizio.—One palliasse ; 1 bolster ; 1 blanket ; 1 coverlet ; 1 set of boards and trestles ; 2 sheets and pillow-cases allowed to bedridden and infirm ; 1 locker or bedside table, and all other necessary utensils. For men—3 shirts ; 3 jackets ; 3 pair of trowsers ; 2 caps ; 1 straw hat.

For women—3 shifts ; 3 jackets ; 3 petticoats ; 2 kerchiefs.

The *Ospizio* is a very noble charity, and its regularity and good order reflect credit on all concerned ; it is open on all occasions to public inspection, and little other recommendation is required to become an inmate than the claims of poverty and distress.

The poor and the deranged occupy distinct parts of the building, and the sexes of each class are separated. The paupers occupy numerous halls and rooms, well ventilated and clean ; each has a separate bed, raised from the floor on boards and trestles, and furnished with a sufficient supply of bedding. There are separate apartments where they take their meals, all the appointments connected with which are equally neat with those of the sleeping rooms.

The lunatics and idiots have each separate cells, with boards and trestles and sufficient bedding, and a general airing-ground and corridor. Coercive measures are rarely resorted to, nor even solitary confinement, except to their own cells, when it is absolutely required.

The foundling division is conducted with equal care and attention to the comforts of its helpless tenants, as the other parts of the establishment. The infants are received from all parts of the island, and are sent out to nurse in the country as fast as nurses can be provided for them. Those who are not thus provided for are reared by hand in the house ; some are very pitiable objects, their congenite diseases rendering it impossible to procure wet nurses for them ;

great attention, however, is paid to them, and some are reared by means of goat's milk, which they suck from the animal, but the mortality is very high. Whenever any of them survive and arrive at an age capable of undertaking employment whereby they can be useful in the establishment, or can provide for themselves, they are either employed within the walls, or discharged to work on their own account; until then they are kept at the public expense.

Many of the orphans are able to make some return to the charity, by working at a cotton manufactory, which is established within its walls. The cotton is purchased in the raw state, and is spun, twisted, and wove into every sort of garment, and bed and table linen, used either in the Ospizio itself or the Civil Hospital. Lint for the use of the latter is also prepared; and such species of industry are promoted as suit the age, infirmities, and constitutions of the inhabitants, nor is the stimulus of pecuniary reward wanting, for about a fourth of the produce of their industry is granted to the work people, and such as are able and of good character are indulged by permission to go out into the city and acquire any little remuneration for their labours they can procure.

The diet is of excellent quality, and cooked in the most careful manner; the whole culinary establishment being remarkable for cleanliness and regularity.

A sum little short of 20,000*l.* currency is annually distributed in Malta to the poor, (including the expenses of the Civil Hospital,) and of this, a sum of about 100*l.* currency per week is distributed in alms.

All these expenses are defrayed from the rent of various lands and houses bequeathed for the purpose by pious individuals at different times. At present paupers of both sexes abound throughout the island. The principal employment of the lower class of women and children is cotton spinning, and at this an adult female cannot at present earn more than twopence per day, which is barely sufficient to supply her with bread. Labourers among the males are in as full employment as ever, where agricultural objects are pursued; but porters, boatmen, and all the other classes which depend upon commerce for their daily subsistence are severe sufferers, and even among superior ranks the effects of poverty are felt with considerable severity¹.

A charity of perhaps the most efficient character that has hitherto been open to the wants of the poor and distressed, is one recently instituted on a very small scale, by a few pious Englishwomen, for supplying poor room-keepers with clothing and an occasional pecuniary stipend. Among the multiplicity of buildings in Valetta, there is no want of cellars and apartments of small size and low rent in all parts of the city for the accommodation of the poor; but there are certain neighbourhoods along the line walls, especially at one point called "Mandraggio," where they are congregated in dense masses, and lodged in abodes, which, it is true, afford them shelter, but it is that shelter which excludes a sufficiency of light and

¹ This was the testimony of Dr. Hennen, in 1830, and, unfortunately, pauperism is still on the increase.

air for the purposes of ordinary ventilation and cleanliness. This particular district has, according to tradition, (confirmed by old plans and maps,) been recovered from the sea in former ages, and is at present below its level;—it is damp, filthy, and comfortless, the houses are crowded together, badly constructed, and inconveniently planned, and the streets are narrow, irregular, and unpaved. At all times the poor inhabitants are characterized by a peculiarly sallow, unhealthy aspect; but during the period that the city suffered from the plague, the disease raged with the most fatal violence among them, and scarce an individual escaped the contagion¹.

The civil hospital of Valetta, elsewhere noticed, consists of two separate branches, one for males, the other for females.

The male capable of accommodating 200 sick; the female 150. The wards are kept clean and well ventilated, and with a sufficient supply of bedding.

The dieting is conducted on a plan nearly similar to that of the British military hospitals, modified by the peculiar habits of the natives.

The medical attendants are natives, and consist of one physician and two surgeons, with two assistants

¹ The term "Mandraggio" is expressive of the nature of this district. "Mandra," in Italian, signifies a "herd of cattle;" and "Mandraggio," though not to be found in dictionaries or vocabularies, designates in the vulgar tongue, "a pen for a herd of cattle." In a plan of the city to be found in "Statuta Hospitalis Hierusalem," 4to., printed at Rome in 1568, the Mandraggio is represented as an oblong basin or ditch on the outside of the line wall.

each. The salary of these officers is about 12*l.* sterling per month. One surgeon has charge of the men, and another of the women. The physician is professor of physic in the college, and delivers clinical lectures on the practice of physic in the hospital. Mr. Portelli, the surgeon of the male hospital, delivers lectures on anatomy and surgery, in a theatre recently erected within the walls of the hospital.

The Lazaretto.—This very important establishment occupies a peninsula which juts out into the lesser harbour on the western side of the city of Valetta, and which has been completely insulated by an artificial cut. On the highest ground in the islet is Fort Manoel, and on the shore beneath is the lazaretto, consisting of a number of buildings, erected at different times, which present an extensive front to the water, surrounded by a triple line of high stone walls towards the land. Besides these buildings a very extensive area is also inclosed by solid stone walls, within which, in cases of necessity, many hundred persons could be encamped, duly classed according to the different stages of their disorder, should plague again make its appearance among the inhabitants. There is abundant accommodation for persons performing quarantine, for cattle and for goods. On the main land, nearly opposite, is the health office, where the various officers of the establishment conduct their business, and beneath is the “parlatorio,” where, under proper restrictions, conversation is permitted with individuals who perform their quarantine on board the shipping.

The whole of the establishment is under the care of

the superintendent of quarantine, and embraces an extensive range of peculiar duties, which are conducted in such a manner as to render the quarantine department of Malta one of the most effective in Europe.

The captain of the port and the physician of the health-office examine all shipping approaching the harbour, to ascertain the state of health of the crew, the nature of the cargo, and the port from which the vessel sailed, &c. &c. The questions necessary to be asked for the elucidation of these points are not left to the discretion of the examining officers, but are contained in printed papers, on which the answers are inserted.

The process of expurgation at Malta, during the plague or other pestilential diseases, consisted of the free and continual admission of air to all parts of the house and furniture, the removal of filth of every species, ablution of all wood work by a strong lye of soap water and the application of hot limewash to all the walls, from the cellar to the garret, taking care to remove and repair all loose or decayed pieces of plastering ; all the drains, &c. completely emptied of their contents, and thoroughly cleansed ; the clothing and furniture most minutely cleansed, and such parts as are not susceptible of damage from water submitted to copious effusions, and even boiled in a strong lye when practicable ; books, and all other similar articles, placed in the open air, on the terraces, &c., and every decayed, superfluous, or useless article, particularly in the form of rags, cordage, paper, clothes, hangings, &c. &c. destroyed. During the

plague in this island, a very large sum of money was expended, and most laudably expended, in the work of expurgation, by the government. Immense quantities of susceptible or infected articles, of little intrinsic value, were hoarded up by the inhabitants, and these were either burnt or properly purified, the government paying one-third of the expense; the cost of transport often exceeded the value of the articles, as the expurgating carts to and from the lazaretto were maintained at an expense of nearly five pounds currency per day each¹.

To these precautions were added fumigations of various kinds, mineral and vegetable; those from the mineral acids were very generally used in the public hospitals. The smoke of straw, damped with water, and the fumes of vinegar, were also a very frequent means of fumigation; but the great officinal formula of the Levantine lazarettos is as follows; it, however, was principally applied to goods, letters, &c.

Sulphur, six pounds; orpiment, crude antimony, litharge, cumin seed, euphorbium, black pepper, ginger, of each four pounds; assafoetida, cinnabar, sal armoniac, of each three pounds; arsenic, one pound. All reduced to a fine powder, to which is added raspings or saw-dust of pine wood, six pounds; bran, fifty pounds.

This most offensive and penetrating composition appears to have been long in use, for it is noticed by Dr. Russell in his History of Aleppo. The exposure

¹ The information which the late Dr. Hennen collected on this, and on all other points of medical topography in our Mediterranean possessions, is extremely valuable.

of clothing to the night air was supposed by many to be the most effectual of all means of purification, and the Turks and other inhabitants of the Levant place the most implicit confidence in its efficacy, which they attribute principally to the operation of the dew.

A regular body of expurgators was organized at Valetta, who marched through the city by beat of drum and sound of bugle, so as to warn all parties of their approach ; but one of the most important establishments was a corps of volunteer guards, called the “ Guardia Volontaria Urbana,” organized by the Inspector-General of Police. They were composed of inhabitants who never moved out of their own streets, and did duty at the doors and windows of their own houses. Their business was to prevent all improper communication ; to see that all susceptible articles of food were immersed in water for at least half an hour ; that pigeons, fowls, rabbits, &c. were stripped of their feathers and skins ; that wine, &c. was received in clean uncorked bottles ; that all non-susceptible articles were cautiously examined, and all filaments of thread, wool, feathers, &c. were removed by pincers and burned ; that all coins received were passed through vinegar ; that all contact with the porters of provisions, water carriers, &c. &c. was cautiously avoided ; and, finally, that individuals of the family anointed themselves well with oil, as the surest preventive. It is remarkable, that the dealers in oil, and those who were anointed with oleaginous materials, escaped the plague ; I observed, when in India, that the oil, ghee, and butter venders were most generally free from cholera.

The quarantine regulations of the island will be found in the large edition of this work.

At Citta Vecchia, an hospital has existed from a remote period. Abela informs us, that of the history of its foundation he possesses no documents; but, so far back as the year 1370, it is mentioned in the records of the Royal Chancery of Palermo. It was then known under the name of the hospital of St. Francesco, and appears to have been well endowed. Its affairs were administered by the jurats or local magistrates of the city. At present, it forms a branch of the civil hospital of Valetta, and it is now called the hospital of Spirito Santo.

In 1654, Nicholas Saura, a native physician, endowed an hospital in Citta Vecchia, for the reception of chronic cases and incurables; it is now a sort of poor-house, and its funds, which have been considerably increased by the bequests of benevolent natives, are entirely under the management of the bishop. There exists also a charitable fund for the portioning of poor girls at Citta Vecchia; and both in that ancient capital and the principal towns throughout the island, frequent and liberal distributions of food and money are made to the poor at the gates of the various convents.

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT—MILITARY DEFENCE—BARRACKS, &c.—REVENUE AND SALARIES—COMMERCE—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—SHIPPING—MANUFACTURES, &c.—GENERAL VIEW.

MALTA is at present ruled by a military governor, appointed by the crown, and a council has this year been added, the constitution of which is seven members, four of which must hold offices within the island, namely, the senior officer in command for the time being (not in the administration of the government); the chief justice; the archbishop; and the chief secretary to government. The three unofficial members of the council are to be selected by the governor; two from out of the chief landed proprietors and merchants, being his majesty's native (Maltese) born subjects; and the third from among the principal merchants of the island, being a British born subject, and who shall have actually resided in the island for a period of not less than two years. It is but just for me to state, that the Maltese (and also several British merchants) are dissatisfied with the constitution of this council; they pray for the reconstruction of their popular assembly, which they had re-organized as soon as they had shut up the French in Valetta, and assert, with justice, that they have been more despotically treated by Great Britain (who, be it remembered, did not conquer them), than by any other government under whose dominion the

island has been, in proof of which they cite the following—

Extracts from some Privileges granted to the People of Malta and Gozo, by their Sovereigns, Suzerains.

1. King Louis, by his diploma of the 7th October, 1350, united perpetually these islands to the royal dominions of Sicily, taking them under his special protection, declaring himself their Lord Suzerain; and that their inhabitants should enjoy all the privileges which were enjoyed by the other cities of the kingdom; and by a solemn act, declared and stipulated that the islands should not be ceded to any one whatever in feud, barony, or by other title.

2. King Martin and Queen Mary renewed and confirmed the act of King Louis, on the 27th November, 1397, at Catania, giving to the Maltese and Gozitans full power to oppose by force any cession or separation of these islands from their union with Sicily. ‘Manu forti, pro quo in nullum crimen, delictum vel inobedientiam incurrere reputentur, et aliquatenus censeantur,’ &c.

3. At the instance of the noble Giovanni Vaccaro, ambassador of the Università of Malta and Gozo, the viceroy of Sicily granted the following concessions and privileges, dated the 6th April, 1419, viz.

That the Università shall build a tower in the Island of Comino,—That for the expense of the building, and maintenance of the garrison, the Università shall lay a duty or contribution of one florin on every cask of wine imported into the island from Sicily, as well as other parts; but that afterwards the duty shall be diminished to the annual sum necessary only to maintain the garrison.

That the castellano, or governor of the said fort, shall always be a Maltese, but shall be elected by the king, to hold the office during pleasure only.

4. King Alphonsus, on the 20th June, 1428, issued a diploma from Valenza, confirming the union of Malta and Gozo to the royal dominions; and in recompense of the fidelity to the

crown, shown by the Maltese by the payment of 30,000 florins of gold to purchase their own government from the noble Gonzalvo de Monroy, he declared himself again their protector Suzerain; and that the islands of Malta and Gozo should be considered as a part of the royal dominions, and as such enjoy all the privileges of his own subjects, reserving to them the whole internal government, civil and criminal.

5. There were other concessions of King Alphonsus, dated 20th March, 1429, at the requisition of the noble Francesco Gatto, and Simone Mazara, ambassadors of the Università, viz.

That all officers of the island be Maltese.

That no fiscal or commissary of any kind could be sent from Sicily.

That the Maltese be exempt from the payment of the duty called *mezza tratta*, and of the customs in all the kingdom of Sicily.

That the office of Secretia of Malta (collectorship of the revenue of government property), be wholly independent of the Maestro Secreto of Sicily.

That the Maltese be exempt from all imposts or taxes, or collections whatever ordered in the kingdom of Sicily, though the case should be most urgent.

6. The same King Alphonsus, the 16th April, 1431, exempted the Maltese from all duties in Sicily.

7. Other concessions from the same sovereign in that year to the aforementioned Francesco Gatto—

Confirmed the privilege of aggregation of the islands to the royal domains by King Martin; and that the exemptions from duty, toll, or impost, shall be observed.

That the office of Capitano of the city shall be annual.

8. The Viceroy of Sicily, at the solicitation of the noble Nicola la Rocca, ambassador from the Università of Malta and Gozo, granted the following favours the 24th March, 1438, viz.

That annual officers be elected, as heretofore, and not otherwise, solely by scrutinio, by a majority of votes of the citizens.

That the jurats and other officers pro tempore, may with impunity resist and deny execution on any royal rescript, grant, or provision, if it be contrary to the privileges of the island; but in the time of four months they are to represent and to consult his royal Majesty or the Viceroy.

That the Castellano of the maritime castle can have no jurisdiction, or any interference whatever, with the jurisdiction of the officers and ministers of the city and the Università.

9. The same King Alphonsus, by his letter dated the 6th June, 1441, thanks the Maltese and Gozitans for their donation of sixty ounces of gold (a considerable sum at that time), and confirms again all the privileges and grants of 1428, and every other.

10. At the intercession of the noble Stefano Serrera, ambassador, the 9th June, 1450, the following was granted:—

That the Università might import from Sicily all kinds of provisions for the subsistence of the two islands, without paying any duty.

That the chief of the city (the capitano), should not enter the council whenever it treated of affairs in which he has any concern.

11. On the application of the noble P. G. de Mazara and Ant. Falzon, ambassadors, King Alphonsus, the 22d Feb. 1458, granted,—

That the Castellano (the King's officer) has no jurisdiction out of the ancient limits, say Castel St. Angelo, under penalty of 1000 florins.

That the jurats and the capitano of the city shall be obliged to execute and obey all the resolutions of the deliberations of the council.

That no office conferred by scrutinio can be held again until after two years, and not till after one year any other office, that there may be time to examine into their past conduct.

12. On the application of the noble Giovanni de Mazara ambassador, King John issued a diploma, dated from Barce-

lona, 2nd Jan. 1460, that all privileges granted and established by his sovereign predecessors were by him confirmed.

13. Also, on the 17th Jan. 1466, on the application of the said Mazara,—

That no one can have two incompatible offices.

That in Malta there shall be no other principal royal office than that of captain of the city, in whom shall be united the office of captain of arms.

That notwithstanding all royal prohibitions to export provisions from Sicily, the Università may for its use and need export them from any port or landing-place in the whole kingdom.

14. A letter of the viceroy, dated 22nd March, 1475. That the jurats have the right to put their accounts and the deliberations of the council into execution, and punish delinquents.

15. Other favours, ceded by the Viceroy of Sicily, at the solicitation of the noble Giovanni di Mazara, the 6th July, 1475.

The ambassador demanded and obtained the recal of a governor who had been appointed over Malta and Gozo, as contrary to the privilege of King Alphonsus in 1428; and a solemn promise was made never to send another governor, or anywise to act contrary to the tenor of the privileges granted by the sovereigns of Sicily, or the natural rights of the Maltese.

That the offices of the Università ought to be conferred in the usual forms by scrutinio, and by a majority of votes.

16. That the jurats and the Università, or council, shall be maintained in their right of electing procurators of the cathedral church, and examining accounts, with the admission of the bishop or his vicarius, according to most ancient custom and usage.

That the council of the city ought to elect a sindacus for the causes moved, or to be moved, between the Università and the bishop.

17. Diploma of King Ferdinand, dated from Ocana, 26th December, 1499, by which he confirms all privileges, liber-

ties, immunities, customs, and moral usages of the Maltese people.

18. Other grants by King Ferdinand, dated Naples, 22d May, 1507, at the prayer of the ambassador, the noble Manfredo Caxaro, viz.

That in all the kingdom the privilege shall be observed, which exempts the Maltese from all duties.

That in Sicily corn should be sold to the Maltese at the same price at which it was current on the day their vessels arrived to purchase and load corn.

19. Grant of King Ferdinand, 3rd August, 1514, by the intercession of the noble Pietro Caruana, ambassador of the Università:—

That no capita d'armi, or other officer, shall be suffered to make proclamations, or insinuate any thing contrary to the privileges of the city.

That in all Sicily the privileges of exemption from duty of the Maltese shall be punctually observed.

20. Diploma of Queen Joan, and Charles, her son, 22nd Sept. 1516, confirming all privileges, jurisdictions, usages, and moral customs and stipulations, ceded and agreed to by all the preceding sovereigns¹.

The Maltese appear to have constantly enjoyed the blessings of a free constitution, except at intervals, when they were under a foreign yoke; and even then they unceasingly struggled to break their chains.

The Consiglio Popolare is stated to have been a permanent representation of the whole people. Its existence and its functions acknowledged, authorized,

¹ There are many more diplomas, grants, privileges, provisions, letters, &c. respecting these matters; but the above are sufficient to show the liberties and franchises enjoyed by the Maltese in ancient times.

and confirmed by all their Suzerains. In the Consiglio Popolare resided the whole legislative authority.

It not only nominated the members of the executive government for the management of ordinary affairs, but it watched their conduct, and retained the power of controlling and displacing them.

The appointment of the principal officer of government, the Capitano di Verga, received the sanction of the Suzerain. The powers of this officer have varied at different periods; but they were always defined, and always limited. Sometimes he has been nominated solely by the Suzerain; sometimes by the Maltese; but generally they submitted to his choice the names of three persons, and this seems to have been the more general and constitutional practice.

All important matters were decided by the popular council. The jurats, as the administrators of public property, were dependent on it, and nominated by it. It took care of the commercial interest of the università, and superintended its operations; and for this effect, whenever it became necessary, it nominated procurators, syndics, &c.

It appointed ambassadors to sovereigns to negotiate on public affairs, and to their Suzerains, to ask favours or complain of violation of privileges, either by themselves or their officers, it being the particular duty of the council to defend rights and privileges.

This council deputed of its own body a certain number of persons of probity, of the first and second classes (of which the Consiglio Popolare was always

composed), to form a Consiglio Particolare, which annually elected by scrutinio the new public officers, or ministers; the election of whom belonged to the citizens, agreeably to their most ancient privileges. The scrutinio means a court that is held annually on the 27th of September, to appoint proper persons to hold offices. The appointment of all public affairs was only for one year, when others were appointed to their places.

It seems that the Consiglio Popolare sometimes deputed the università (or jurats) to elect the judges, &c. by scrutinio, and this body then composed the Consiglio Particolare, or exercised its functions.

No new duty tax could be collected without the consent and order of the Consiglio Popolare; and it seems that the consent of the Suzerain, who protected the people individually as well as collectively, was also necessary, at least to taxes of importance.

With respect to the persons who composed the Consiglio Popolare, it appears by ancient records, that before the coming of the Order of St. John, and many years afterwards, this body was composed of a certain number of persons of families of the first and second classes, and the representatives of towns (cassals) elected by the people, who were called constables (contestabili). The jurats, and all other officers of popular election, had a seat in the Consiglio Popolare on general affairs.

Strangers domiciliated five years, and married to Maltese women, were admitted members of the council, by an act of the council itself.

All officers of the island were Maltese.

The Capitano di Verga (who was the royal officer in the island), was prohibited to enter the Consiglio Popolare, whenever he might have any interest in the business to be treated of.

If this Capitano, or the principal magistrate, abused the powers committed to him, the Consiglio Popolare had a right to complain to the Suzerain, and demand his removal from office, &c.

The Castellano, or governor of the marine castle, had no interference in the affairs of the università, or the city, nor any jurisdiction beyond the ditches of the fort.

Whenever the members of the Consiglio Popolare differed considerably among themselves on important points, such as internal regulations, they sent ambassadors to the King, or Viceroy, to represent the different opinions, which he decided by a diploma, grant, &c.

The Consiglio Popolare was by the Sicilians, and by the Maltese themselves, frequently called the council of the city (Città Vecchia, Medina or Notabile), by excellence called the city.

Gozo was governed in every respect the same as Malta. It had its own Consiglio Popolare, and every other officer, similar to those in Malta¹.

On the breaking out of the insurrection against the

¹ In 1644, in the time of the Order of St. John, a general council of the heads of families was convened in Gozo, to lay a contribution for the building a new city, which being refused by the people, the project did not take place, as appears by the register of the Order, the 7th May, 1644.

French republicans in September 1798, the first measure of the Maltese was to re-establish this council (which had been despotically suspended by the latter Grand Masters of the order of St. John of Jerusalem), to which they then gave the name of congress. This congress was composed of representatives of the clergy and of the people of the whole country freely elected, and had appointed as president Sir Alexander John Ball, then commanding his majesty's forces in the blockade of Valetta.

When the British troops took possession of the fortifications in September 1800, the congress was suspended by Sir A. Ball, the very man who had stipulated with the Maltese and promised its preservation; he established a system of government entirely arbitrary and despotic, contrary to the expectations of the Maltese; and instead of allowing them to be governed by their ancient laws, conformably to the spirit of the British constitution, he adopted the detested code of Rohan, which had already destroyed some of their privileges, and which code is in force in the island to this day.

In 1813, Sir Thomas Maitland arrived in Malta as governor, when the last deadly blow was given to the remaining national institutions of the Maltese. Their magistrates, under the name of Giurati, formed a highly respectable board, which had existed for many centuries, and was respected even by the despotic Grand Masters, as well as by the French themselves; but in 1818 their office was totally abolished, so as to leave no trace whatever of a representative body in the island of Malta. Respectable and meritorious

Maltese have, it is alleged, been dismissed from their situations for no other reason than to make room for Englishmen. The salaries of the heads of several families were given to a few individuals newly arrived in the island, whose merits were totally unknown to the natives. The Maltese occupied formerly all the principal situations in the island, including that of governor of Gozo, with the exception of the posts of public secretary and treasurer; but at this period they were removed, humiliated in their own country by their protectors, and lowered to the rank of inferior officers. The island has been loaded with insupportable burdens; high duties have been established, and pensions assigned on the revenue to individuals not Maltese, and not resident in the island. Restrictions on the trade, quarantine dues, and charges have been established, and little or no trace of a free port is any longer left; excessive expenses in the numerous tribunals; confusion in the laws by continual alterations, and by frequent contradictory proclamations, have succeeded. Even the brown barley bread, the only food of the poor, was highly taxed, to upwards of 100 per cent. The university, anciently endowed with sufficient funds for its support, has been rendered mercenary by imposing on the students a monthly tax, while the revenue has been engrossed by the government. Sir Thomas Maitland was the governor, the legislator, and the judge, and stood, a military man, omnipotent in the island.

The Maltese, deprived of the blessings of a free press, notwithstanding their repeated supplications

for the privilege, had no means of making known their grievances to the British nation, from their own country; while the press being monopolized by the local government, the progress of intellect is checked, and the natives are deprived of the benefit of so profitable a branch of employment. The Maltese, governed as they are by a liberal nation, jealous of the liberty of the press, cannot but feel strongly at being totally deprived of so great a privilege.

Even their humble petitions encountered the greatest difficulties from the local authorities at Malta; so as almost to impede the voice of the faithful Maltese subjects in reaching the British throne; and, after a petition to the king had been signed by almost all the nobility of the island, and other respectable inhabitants, they were designated by the ruler, a despotic military man, in a printed publication stuck up in all public places, as weak, inconsiderate, turbulent, and factious, and some of the subscribers have been deprived of their situations to the present day.

These alleged grievances require investigation: they have continued for thirty-five years, during which period the Maltese say that they addressed the crown and the Colonial Office in vain;—they have sent deputies to England, and used every argument and entreaty that a reasoning and faithful people could devise; and the only redress offered, has been the council above-named; against which the British merchants in Malta and in London, as well as the Maltese themselves, have protested. Without pledging myself to the statements made, or suggesting the remedies, I have

performed my duty in giving publicity to complaints which it is the interest of all parties to examine. Since the large edition of this work was published, the statements herein made, supported by many voluminous and convincing documents, have attracted the attention of the colonial authorities, and a commission has been appointed by the crown to inquire into the state of Malta.

MILITARY DEFENCE.—The island is protected by a naval squadron, Malta being the head quarters of our Mediterranean fleet ; and by a garrison of British troops, and a regiment of Maltese fencibles,—consisting of twenty-five officers, forty-one non-commissioned ditto, and 468 rank and file, which the Maltese themselves pay for. It has been proposed to raise two or three regiments of Maltese fencibles for service in the Mediterranean and West Indies, or in a tropical climate. Such a measure would give relief to the overstocked population of the island ; and, as the Maltese make sober and patient troops, they would be well suited for West India servitude, particularly if the enlistment were for a limited period. The following table shews the—

Numbers and Distribution of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-commissioned Officers, Rank and File, of the British Army, Artillery and Engineers, including the Maltese Fencibles, in each year since 1815.

		Officers present, or on detached duty at the Station.													
		Colonels.	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Quarter Masters.	Surgeons.	Assistant Surgeons.	Serjeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
5th January, 1816	...	6	4	30	66	20	3	4	5	5	7	260	86	5870	
1817	...	3	3	24	44	15	3	4	3	3	4	152	78	2441	
1818	...	4	3	27	35	22	2	3	3	4	5	141	56	2697	
1819	...	3	3	16	26	16	1	1	2	2	3	84	44	1596	
1820	...	3	3	15	24	15	2	2	2	3	1	71	44	1457	
1821	...	1	5	21	26	18	2	2	1	2	3	80	46	1520	
1822	...	2	7	19	26	19	2	3	2	3	3	87	39	1921	
1823	...	3	6	16	26	17	3	3	3	2	3	89	37	1914	
1824	...	2	4	17	22	13	3	3	3	1	4	83	36	1778	
1825	...	4	4	15	22	13	3	3	3	3	2	77	35	1679	
1826	2	2	4	20	24	17	4	4	4	5	3	119	40	2032	
1827	3	3	2	18	26	14	3	4	4	4	4	123	43	2041	
1828	3	2	2	24	34	18	3	4	4	4	3	123	47	2214	
1829	4	3	4	27	38	18	5	4	5	6	4	149	52	2616	
1830	3	3	3	26	36	17	5	5	5	5	5	151	50	2644	
1st January, 1831	2	3	4	23	31	13	5	5	5	4	5	153	52	2520	
1832	...	2	2	23	32	13	4	4	4	3	5	121	43	1951	
1833	1	4	4	24	38	8	5	4	5	4	6	154	55	2392	

Barracks.—Dr. Hennen truly observes, that to give a minute description of these buildings would be in a great measure to give an account of the stupendous fortifications themselves, for the barracks form integral parts of the works, and the principal walls are common to both. The barrack-yards and squares are in numerous instances formed out of the quarries whence the materials for the fortifications were raised, and the lower floors of the barracks are formed of the

surface of these quarries, while the lower part of the walls is merely the rock perpendicularly scarped.

In some instances this peculiarity of structure renders thorough ventilation impossible, but the deficiency is supplied by long galleries and large doors of communication, while the disadvantage is in some measure counterbalanced by the decreased temperature in the summer months.

The principal occupied barracks in the city of Valetta are those of St. Elmo. They are divided into the upper and lower; the former are permanently occupied by the royal artillery. The principal rooms are built around an open quadrangular space of about 80 yards by 40; there are others built in a range on the upper part of the works; in the whole there are 56 rooms of various sizes, from 10 feet by 9, to 20 feet by 15, and from 9 to 15 feet in height. The ventilation is good and complete.

The lower barracks of St. Elmo are always occupied by the corps of infantry quartered in the city of Valetta. They lie on the western side of the fort, and are constructed behind the parapet wall and that part of the rock which is scarped out to form the sea front of the works looking towards the quarantine harbour. These barracks are of three tiers or stories of 175 paces in length, and run nearly east and west; the back of the room is principally formed by the solid rock: the front has a southern aspect, and opens to a space from which was originally quarried the materials of the buildings: this space is 180 yards in length, and varies in breadth from forty-three to twenty-four yards. The rooms of the lower tier are

only ventilated by the door by which they communicate with this open space or area: they are principally used for stores and cooking houses. The second tier has a common passage running along the whole front; and opposite each room or archway, in which the men sleep, there is a large window. The rooms of the third tier are of a similar construction; but as their upper part rises above the level of the platforms of the works, they enjoy the additional ventilation of a small window in the rear, which runs from the top of the arch obliquely upwards towards the parapet. At each end of the range there is a stair-case of communication, which also affords a circulation of air, the whole is sufficiently well ventilated and lighted.

There is a very ample supply of water in the barrack-yard, and the drainage after much labour and expense, is now complete.

There is another barrack in Valetta, situated on the land side of the works, in the cavalier of St. James. The native fencibles are accommodated in this barrack in fourteen casemates in two tiers.

The barracks at Floriana are more modern than those of Valetta, but, like them, are bomb-proof casemates. They are situated on the western side of the isthmus in that part of the works which looks towards the quarantine harbour; they are below the summit level of the esplanade, but still at about 100 feet above the level of the sea. The rooms appropriated for the use of the soldiers consist of casemates with two large ventilators in each roof, and a window over each door. Besides these casemates there are a smaller range of rooms for non-commis-

sioned officers, and for the various purposes of stores, cooking houses, orderly-rooms, places of confinement, &c. &c. The whole are within an enclosure, which affords sufficient space for the purpose of parading the guards, &c. There is an ample supply of tank water of good quality within this enclosure, and the barracks, though hot, are by no means uncomfortable, as they lie on the opposite side of the works from the Marsa at the head of the great harbour, and are screened from the winds that blow over it by the ridge upon which the suburb of Floriana is built.

The barracks in the Cottonera district, on the eastern side of the harbour, are very numerous. The principal are situated at Isola gate, behind the dock-yard, at about sixty feet above the level of the sea. These, like the last described, are bomb-proof casemates; within the last two years several passages have been cut through the rocks in various points, so as to admit of more light and air than they formerly enjoyed.

The barracks consist of fourteen bomb-proofs, of different sizes, shapes, and aspects, with stores, canteens, cook-houses, &c. &c. sufficient to contain 500 men, and are generally occupied as the head-quarters of the corps doing duty on the eastern side of the great harbour. They are confined within an enclosed yard, and are amply supplied with good water; the supply was formerly restricted, but the building of a new tank has effectually obviated that serious deficiency.

The barracks of St. Francesco di Paulo are of the

same general character as the preceding, but about twenty feet higher above the level of the sea. Those of St. Salvador are still higher, being nearly 400 feet above that level. The other barracks are those of St. Helena, Vittoriosa Gate, Zeitun Gate, St. Angelo, &c. &c.

All the barracks are admirably adapted for the purposes for which they are intended; and so numerous, that the health of the troops ought never to suffer from crowding, or from want of every accommodation which barracks can afford.

LAWs.—The despotism both of the grand masters of the order of St. John, and of Great Britain, has almost annihilated any thing like a code or *lex scripta*.

A commission has been appointed by his majesty to examine into the state of the law in Malta, and to prepare a criminal, civil and commercial code.

The law, as it is now administered in Malta, is expensive and tedious. A modified system of trial by jury has been introduced for certain criminal cases. The judges, who were formerly paid by fees, are now independent with fixed salaries, and not removable by any authority except by an order of the king in council. The language of the courts of law is Italian.

In the criminal court it does not appear that there is much business of a very serious nature. The common offence is stealing and pilfering; but there is a remarkable absence of all crimes of a very aggravated nature.

The following returns shew the state of the prison and the number of indictments and death sentences in the island.

Number of Prisoners who have been in confinement in the Great Prison of Valetta, on the first day of each of the undermentioned years.

Dates.	1st Class.	2d Class.	3d Class.	4th Class.	5th Class.	6th Class.	Totals.
1st January, 1827	46	58	84	71	...	...	259
1828	48	52	79	96	...	...	275
1829	46	51	71	114	...	...	282
1830	53	46	72	91	...	...	262
1831	51	44	62	98	...	...	255
1832	46	34	57	61	35	8	241
1833	45	35	68	50	31	14	243
1834	42	31	69	72	38	11	263
1835	39	32	71	73	31	14	260
1836							

N.B. Previous to July, 1831, the prisoners were divided into only four Classes, and the female prisoners were included in the fourth Class, but by the new classification, they are no longer included in the Reports of the Great Prison.

Schedule of Indictments presented and determined in His Majesty's Courts, during the undermentioned years.

Years.	Number of		Death.	Imprisonment with Hard Labour in Irons for						Inferior Punishments.	Total.
	Indictments.	Persons indicted.		Life.	20 years.	10 years.	7 years.	5 years.	3 years.		
1827	...	...	...	4	...	5	4	5	...	156	174
1828	221	251	2	5	...	7	...	10	...	166	190
1829	167	216	...	4	...	2	2	9	...	142	159
1830	150	208	4	4	6	8	4	...	...	124	150
1831	125	153	...	2	...	5	1	12	5	86	111
1832	136	158	...	3	1	9	1	18	10	149	191
1833	83	107	2	2	1	...	...	5	10	156	176
1834	94	116	...	...	...	5	1	11	7	191	215

In the civil courts there is a multiplicity of business ; the denseness of the population, and the uncertainty of the law, are probably the causes of the extent of litigation that pervades the island.

The supreme court consists of a chief justice or president, and four members ; and there are minor courts, viz. that of special commission, an inferior or magistrates' court : a court of piratical offences ; a commercial court, &c.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—*The Revenue* of Malta is high in proportion to the number of inhabitants, and to the nature of their country : it is on an average 100,000*l.* per annum, arising from the following sources :—

Rent of property of the crown in lands and houses in the islands of Malta and Gozo, 28,000*l.* ; tax on the importation of foreign corn, 30,000*l.* ; customs and port dues, 14,000*l.* ; excise, 16,000*l.* ; quarantine dues, 5000*l.* ; judicial fees, 4000*l.* ; minor taxes, 3000*l.*

The system under which this revenue is raised is much objected to in England as well as in Malta, and requires the revision of some authority delegated from those who pay the above mentioned taxes.

The rents of the crown property, though sufficiently high under the present system, would be susceptible of an easy and great increase, on restoring some share of the prosperity Malta may fairly claim, and will then always prove her most legitimate and best source of revenue.

The expenses of prisons, hospitals, and public charities, might be much lessened by restoring the condition of the population.

The quarantine dues at Malta are particularly objected to, on the ground that they should not be levied on the individuals or goods placed in quarantine, but on the general treasury, as it is sufficient punishment to the individual to be kept in confinement, and sufficient detriment to the merchant to have his goods detained and unpacked, without being obliged also to pay for a measure which is one of general police, and not for private benefit.

The absurdity, to say nothing of the cruelty, of checking commerce in Malta, by levying duties whether on importation or transmit, must be apparent to the veriest tyro in political economy. The British merchants engaged in the Maltese trade have long been urging on the Government the absolute necessity of removing these duties, instead of complying with which, the Government have issued another tariff, thus adding uncertainty in the duration to the mischief of injudicious laws.

The following is an account of the gross revenue and expenditure, in sterling money, since 1821 :—

Years.	Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
	£.	£	£.	£.
1821	98878	85579	19361	101940
1822	102448	120844	16991	137835
1823	89465	90098	16402	106500
1824	92882	89416	16531	105947
1825	94678	87915	16140	104055
1826	93688	94617	16309	110926
1827	117094	107039	16938	123977
1828	96899	87880	11535	99415
1829	95485	87867	1799	89666
1830	94951	83231	1670	84901
1831	107296	92201	15295	107296

The revenue and expenditure is subject to the examination of an auditor who resides on the island, and whose duty it is to remark upon any thing not authenticated by the Secretary of State or the Treasury in England. The accounts are forwarded at a fixed period of the year to the auditor in England.

The *Expenditure* of the island defrayed by Great Britain amounted, in 1829, to 101,181*l.*; thus,—four regiments, 70,502*l.*; Ordnance, 25,879*l.*; Commissariat, 29,800*l.*; Staff, 3000*l.*; total, 129,181*l.*; but deducting 28,000*l.* stoppages from the soldiers for the rations, 101,181*l.* In the year 1832, the amount paid by Great Britain for the military expenditure of Malta was 100,462*l.*, viz.:—Regimental pay, clothing, and hospital charges, exclusive of contingencies, 63,060*l.*; pay of General and Medical Staffs, Government Officers and Chaplain, 2444*l.*—*Ordnance*. Pay and allowances of Artillery and Engineers, 7892*l.*; Civil Department, 1833*l.*; Contingents, 412*l.*; Ordnance Stores, 3196*l.*; Military Works, 2860*l.*; Barrack Department, 718*l.*; repair of Barracks, &c. 3197*l.*; Barrack Stores, 1102*l.*; Commissariat pay and allowance, 2108*l.*; Provisions, Forage, Fuel, Stores, and Freight, 20,404*l.*; Contingents, 358*l.*; Army Vessels, 32*l.*; Transport of Troops and Stores, 4587*l.*; Surplus Provisions and Stores, 1985*l.*; total expense, 116,141*l.*; but deducting 15,678*l.* stoppages, the actual cost to Great Britain was 100,462*l.* The cost of the Maltese regiment, which is defrayed by the people of the island, is, for the year ending March, 1836, (all ranks, strength 534,) pay and daily allowances, 10,576*l.*; extras, 140*l.*; clothing, 500*l.*; total, 11,216*l.*

The following are stated as some of the principal salaries :—Lieutenant-Governor, 5000*l.*; Chief Secretary, 1500*l.*; Chief Justice, 1500*l.*; Treasurer, 1000*l.*; Superintendent of Quarantine, 800*l.*; Attorney General, 800*l.*; Collector of Land Revenue, 700*l.*; Agent for the Grain Department, 600*l.*; Superintendent of do. 500*l.*; Director of Public Works, 500*l.*; Auditor of Accounts, 500*l.*; First Magistrate of Judicial Police and Coroner¹, 430*l.*; First Assistant, Secretary's Office, 430*l.*; Magistrate of Gozo, and Collector of Land Revenue, 400*l.*; Collector of Customs, 400*l.*; Superintendent of Marine Police, 350*l.*; Magistrate of Executive Police, 350*l.*; Lieutenant-Governor of Gozo, 350*l.*; Chaplain to the Civil Government, 300*l.*; Superintendent of the Government Printing office, 250*l.*; Superintendent of the Island Post-office, 250*l.*; Clerk, Secretary's Office, &c. 200*l.*; Adjutant of Police, and Lieutenant R. M. Fencibles, 200*l.*; Captain of the Quarantine, 200*l.*

MONETARY SYSTEM.—There are two banks of discount and deposit, who circulate their own notes of ten scudi's and upwards, without any connexion with or support from Government. The whole capital is deposited in shares of 1000 Sicilian dollars in 2500 scudi's each, which shares may be transferred with the approval of the Directors, who are elected from among the shareholders, and serve gratis. The expenses of these establishments, as well as interest

¹ After the death of John Locker, Esq. the place of First Magistrate of Judicial Police is said to have been abolished.

and profit on the shares, are paid by discounting bills, with two approved signatures, of not more than three months' date, at the rate of six per cent. per annum, —paper offered by shareholders enjoying a preference. These banks have done much in retaining some commerce at Malta in lieu of the bad system that destroys it. The capital of each bank does not now probably exceed 200,000*l.*, and the circulation of the notes of both will not now be likely to exceed half the deposited capital. The coins in circulation are chiefly Spanish and Sicilian dollars, with some of the silver coin of England for the colonies generally; and some copper coin for Malta in substitution of the copper coinage of the Order of St. John, latterly withdrawn; a small quantity of the silver and gold coin of the Grand Masters still remains in circulation, as well as the coins of various surrounding countries, many of which are current at fluctuating values.

There is little or no gold coin in circulation; the amount of silver and copper currency is estimated at 150,000*l.* sterling, and of paper currency at 20,000*l.*

A singular institution exists at Malta, termed the Monte di Pietà, which was established there in the year 1597, and, like all institutions of the sort in other parts of Europe, particularly at Rome, with the object of affording pecuniary relief to the distressed at reasonable interest, thereby preventing them from having recourse to usurious contracts. Any sum of money, however small, is advanced to the applicants on the security of property given in pawn,—such as gold, silver, and other precious articles, or wearing apparel, whether worn or new. The period of the

loan is for three years on pawns of the first description, and never more than two on those of the latter, renewable at the option of the parties, who are also at liberty to redeem their pawns at any time within the period on payment of interest in proportion. The rate of interest now charged is six per cent. per annum. The unclaimed pawns, at the expiration of the period, are sold by public auction, and the residue of the proceeds, after deducting the sum due to the institution, is payable to the person producing the ticket. Of the accommodation thus afforded by the Monte, not unfrequently persons in better circumstances have availed themselves for any monetary exigency, and in this way considerable sums have been advanced.

Till the year 1787, the operations of this institution were conducted by means of money borrowed at a moderate interest, and by funds acquired by donations, &c. But the then Grand Master, Rohan, authorized the consolidation of the funds of the Monte di Pietà with those of the Monte di Redenzione, another institution equally national, founded in the year 1607 by private donations and bequests, for the philanthropic object of rescuing from slavery any of the natives who might fall into the hands of the Mahomedans, not having means of ransom. As this institution had larger funds (mostly in landed property) than it actually required to meet all demands, the act of consolidation proved of the greatest advantage to the Monte di Pietà. Thus united, the two institutions, with the new title of Monte di Pietà e

Redenzione, conducted their separate duties under the superintendence of a Board, consisting of a President and eight Commissioners, till the expulsion of the Order of St. John from Malta, which happened in the year 1798. The French Republicans, by whom the island was then occupied, stripped the Monte of every article, whether in money or pawns, and the loss sustained by the institution on that unfortunate occasion amounted nearly to 35,000*l.*, including the share of the proprietors of pawns, inasmuch as the advance they received on that security never exceeded one-half or two-thirds of the value of the articles pawned. It is needless to state that not a shilling of this sum was repaid by the French Government after the restoration of their legitimate monarchs¹.

When the British forces took possession of La Valetta in September, 1800, it was one of the first cares of the head of the Government to see this useful institution resume its operations. Accordingly, a new Board was elected, and about 4000*l.* advanced to them, without interest, from the local treasury. A loan was opened, to which individuals did not hesitate to contribute when they were assured that the institution considered itself bound to pay the old loan, though forming part of the amount carried away by the French, and that in the meantime interest would be paid on it. The Monte possessing landed property to a much greater amount, could never refuse

¹ If the Maltese had not been excluded from the capitulation of 1800, they would not have lost this money.

such an act of justice. Happily, the cessation of slavery having put an end to the old charge for ransoms, enabled the institution to devote its revenues to the payment of interest on the old loan, to the extinction of part of the capital, to the improvement of its property, and for the last *ten years* to assign a subsidy of 500*l.* per annum to the house of industry.

There is another Monte di Pietà at Gozo, established by the late Sir Alexander Ball about *thirty years* ago, but its operations are extremely limited, inasmuch as it possesses no funds of its own worth mentioning, and has no capital at its disposal but 4400 dollars, borrowed from the Monte di Pietà e Redenzione of Malta, at the interest of three per cent. per annum.

Course of Exchange.—The committee of merchants declare a rate of exchange with England twice a week, founded on the actual transactions during the intervening days.

The Commissary, in pursuance of his instructions from the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, grants bills on their Lordships at the rate of 100*l.* in exchange for every 101*l.* 10*s.* tendered to him in British silver money. He has not for some time advertised for any supplies in other than British specie;—should he have occasion so to do, he must come in competition with the merchants.

The average rate of the commercial exchange on London during the last few years has been about 50*d.* per dollar of exchange of thirty taris.

The following are the average rates of exchange with the principal ports of the Mediterranean:—

Sicily.....	10s. 4d.	sterling	per ounce of $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars.
Naples	3s. 5d.	ditto	per ducat of 100 grains.
Leghorn	4s. 2d.	ditto	per gold dollar.
Genoa	0s. 8d.	ditto	per Lira Fuori banco.
Trieste	2s. 1d.	ditto	per florin.
Marseilles.....	0s. $9\frac{1}{2}$ d.	ditto	per franc.

The Government departments (since the 25th of December, 1825) keep their accounts and conduct their cash transactions in sterling, in the same manner as in England.

Moneys.—The introduction of British money into these possessions has not hitherto produced among the commercial body of inhabitants generally any alteration of the mode of keeping their accounts, and of making sales, contracts, &c. which are continued as formerly in Maltese currency, namely, scudi, tari, and grains. 20 grains = 1 tari; 12 taris = 1 scudo = 1s. 8d. sterling.

The current gold coin is either the French louis d'or, or a piece bearing the effigy of a Grand Master, both value about 10 scudi = 16s. 8d. Spanish doubloons, with an agis, from 40 to $40\frac{1}{2}$ scudi; Venetian sequins from $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 5 scudi; and the Sicilian ounce = $6\frac{1}{4}$ scudi.

Silver. Sicilian dollar = $2\frac{1}{2}$ scudi; Grand Master pieces of 2 and 1 scudi; pieces of 15, 10, 6, and 5 taris each; Spanish dollar = 2 scudi, 7 taris, and 4 grains.

The following are the weights and measures of Malta:—

WEIGHTS for gold, silver, pearl, precious stones, &c.—

										Coeci.						
								Trepesa...		18						
								Sedicesimo...	2	36						
								Octavo...	2	4	72					
								Quarta...	2	4	8	144				
								Oncia...	4	8	16	32	576			
								Libbra...	12	48	96	192	384	6912		
								Rotolo*...	2½	30	120	240	480	960	17280	
								Pesa...	5	12½	150	600	1200	2400	4800	86400
Cantaro†	...	20	100	250	3000	12000	24000	48000	96000	1728000						

* A rotolo is equal to 1½ lbs. English.

† A cantaro is equal to 175 lbs. English.

For every description of dry goods :—

									Cocci.				
								Quarta...	144				
								Oncia...	4	576			
								Rotolo...	30	120	17280		
								Pesa...	5	150	600	86400	
								Cantaro...	20	100	3000	12000	1728000
Pesata or Quintale*	...	3	60	300	9000	36000	5184000						

* Firewood is sold by the pesata of three cantars.

MEASURES.—*Dry Measure.* For all grain and pulse, almonds, olives, salt, and various seeds and charcoal :—

									Lumini.
							Half Misura...		5
							Misura...	2	10
			Mondello...		10		20		100
			Tumolo...	6	60		120		600
		Sacco...	4	24	240		480		2400
Salma*	...	4	16	96	960		1920		9600

* One salma is equal to about 7½ bushels, imperial measure. Wheat and barley are sold by the stricked, and all others by the heaped measure.

Long Measure.—For cloth, linen, cotton, stone, &c. :—

					Punti.
				Linea...	12
			Police...	12	144
		Palmo*...	12	144	1728
Canna†	...	8	96	1152	13824

* 3½ palmi make an English yard, and 12 palmi in length, and 1 in thickness, make a tratta, by which measure ship timber and beams for houses are sold.

† 156 square canne are equal to 1 tumolo of land ; 16 square tumoli are equal to 1 salma ; the salma is equal to 4.44 English acres.

Liquid Measure.—For all liquids ; oil, milk, and honey excepted :—

							Mezza Pinta.	
						Pinta...	2	
					Terzo...	2	4	
				Mezzo...	2	4	8	
			Quartino...	2	4	8	16	
		Mezza Quartara...	9½	19	38	76	152	
	Quartara	...	2	19	38	76	152	304
	Barrile*	...	2	4	38	76	152	304
	Pipa	...	11	22	44	418	836	1672
	Botte...	2	22	44	88	836	1672	3344
							6688	13376

* The barrile is about equal to 9·37 imperial gallons.

Liquid Measure.—For oil and milk :—

							Quartini.	
						Misura...	4	
					Terzo...	2½	10	
				Mezzo...	2	5	20	
			Quartucci...	2	4	10	40	
		Quarta...	4	8	16	40	160	
		Half Cafiso.	2	8	16	32	80	320
		Cafiso*	...	2	4	16	32	64
		Barrile	...	2	4	8	32	64
							128	320
							1280	

* A cafiso is about equal to 4·38 imperial gallons.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Malta, subsequent to 1804, during the continental war, was very great ; but the plague, followed by the peace of Paris, and the consequent throwing open of the Mediterranean ports, as well as other operating circumstances, lessened materially the traffic of the place as a deposit for merchandise in its transit to other markets. But although the plague and the peace helped to destroy the great commerce of Malta, yet other causes must be sought for its decline, as the island did not at any time enjoy an exclusive monopoly of the Mediterranean trade, because it was impossible to deprive Bar-

celona, Marseilles, Genoa, Leghorn, Messina, Ancona, Trieste, Smyrna, Alexandria, and other places, of some share of a trade which local or other advantages would always command ; but neither a temporary pestilential disease, nor a general peace, which ought to facilitate commerce, should deprive Malta of the advantages which it naturally possesses for trade under the protection of the British flag.

The value of the trade carried on since 1823 is thus shewn in sterling money :—

Years.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Value of Imports.	Total Exports.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	
1823.....	242362	51590	363326	657278	
1824.....	176972	42934	353015	572921	
1825.....	144132	24177	301058	469367	
1826.....	162578	38479	311792	512849	
1827.....	144302	39142	375186	562630	
1828.....	133118	37914	429671	600703	£.
1829.....	166877	20554	353802	541233	393707
1830.....	157081	25020	340523	522624	428670
1831.....	139103	15776	396253	561132	384120
1832.....	182982	27260	379419	591666	403377

The imports and exports for the year 1834, as forwarded to me from the Custom-house at Malta, were as follows :

Articles Imported.		Estimated Value in Sterling.				
Description and Quantity.		From Great Britain.	British Colonies.	United States of America.	Foreign States.	Total.
		£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Colonial Produce.	Manufactures in packages and in bulk	114517	10571	411	35463	160962
	Sugar, refined and crushed	22647	464		242	23353
	Coffee and Cocoa.....	8448	2255	2510	3756	16969
	Indigo.....	2640	2	..	1	2643
	Rum.....	1491	3	..	..	1494
	Spices.....	4575	429	205	1751	6960
	Sugar, raw	16500	6036	2922	1862	27320
	Tea	52	1566	691	149	2458
	Brimstone.....	..	..	..	1171	1171
	Drugs and articles used in dying....	767	102	183	1594	2646
	Flax, Hemp, and Tow.....	..	292	..	2628	2920
	Hides, salted and dried	..	1252	..	3725	4977
	Rosin and tar.....	242	24	81	198	545
	Seeds in general	..	..	..	4187	4187
	Silk, raw	13	..	..	..	13
Raw Materials.	Tobacco Leaf.....	2452	2320	732	9831	15335
	Wax.....	..	4	..	460	464
	Wood, Timber, Deals, &c.....	165	..	121	8087	8373
	Wool and Cotton Wool	..	..	..	357	357
	Miscellanies	237	20	..	1846	2103
	Beans, Pease, Caravances, &c.....	..	..	..	29065	29065
	Biscuit	..	..	..	100	100
	Bullocks, Pigs, and Sheep.....	..	..	..	24418	24418
	Carob Beans	..	239	..	2863	3102
	Coal and Charcoal.....	1603	..	..	8755	10358
Provisions, Fuel, Wines, Spirits, &c.	Cheese	1623	..	1628	1271	4522
	Fish, salted and dried.....	1760	2469*	204	7043	11476
	Flour	..	..	..	162	162
	Fruit, dried.....	..	25	..	16835	16860
	Grain, viz.—Wheat.....	..	..	..	93337	93337
	Indian Corn	..	..	..	6978	6978
	Barley	..	..	..	6380	6380
	Meat, salted and dried.....	336	176	..	5999	6511
	Mules, Horses, and Asses	..	..	..	384	384
	Oil, and Linseed Oil.....	..	..	..	26720	26720
	Olives, salted	..	..	..	1050	1050
	Olive Stones and Firewood	..	..	..	8518	8518
	Paste and Macaroni	..	..	..	700	700
	Potatoes.....	3	..	..	1311	1314
	Rice.....	1013	68	98	1486	2665
	Spirits (Brandy and Gin).....	1524	45	..	4483	6052
	Vinegar	..	..	..	1453	1453
	Wine	352	895	..	41444	42691
	Miscellaneous	22	8	..	1606	1636
Total value of Imports...		182982	27260	9786	369633	591666

* Of this £2005 were from our Colonies in North America.

In the preceding table of imports a return is given of such articles only as paid consumption duty.

The exports from Malta, for 1834, were estimated in pounds sterling thus:—

Manufactures.—British and foreign, 103,137*l.*; Malta, viz. cotton cloth, 37,031*l.*; ditto coverlets, 300*l.*; ditto nankeens, 1111*l.*; ditto sail cloth, 17,458*l.*; ditto yarn, 34,935*l.*; wrought gold and silver, 5500*l.*; cut stone, 672*l.*

Sugar, refined and crushed, 14,888*l.*

Colonial Produce.—Coffee and cocoa, 17,273*l.*; indigo, 740*l.*; rum, 720*l.*; spices, 6656*l.*; sugar, raw, 9107*l.*; tea, 1750*l.*

Raw Materials.—Alum, 35*l.*; argols, 35*l.*; barilla, 1275*l.*; drugs and dye stuffs, 2090*l.*; elephants' teeth, 104*l.*; flax, hemp, and tow, 730*l.*; hides, salted and dried, 15,903*l.*; natron, 162*l.*; pitch, tar, and rosin, 1318*l.*; silk, raw, 70*l.*; skins, 183*l.*; tobacco, leaf, 1833*l.*; vermilion, 541*l.*; vitriol, 31*l.*; wax, 376*l.*; wood, viz. boxwood, 184*l.*; ditto campeachy, 283*l.*; ditto firewood, 71*l.*; ditto mahogany, 65*l.*; ditto staves and hoops, 105*l.*; ditto timber and deals, 3761*l.*; wool, and foreign cotton wool, 4105*l.*; ditto Malta cotton, white, 10,218; ditto, ditto, red, 381*l.*

Grain, Pulse, Provisions, &c.—Almonds, 447*l.*; beer, 372*l.*; biscuit, 65*l.*; carob beans, 563*l.*; cheese, 222*l.*; chesnuts, 70*l.*; fish, salted and dried, 4315*l.*; flour, 191*l.*; fruit, dried, 6451*l.*; grain, viz. wheat, 2353*l.*; ditto Indian corn, 747*l.*; ditto barley, 4893*l.*; meat, salted and dried, 46*l.*; nuts, 580*l.*; paste, 759*l.*; potatoes, 1947*l.*; pulse, 90*l.*; rice, 623*l.*; seeds, in general, 623*l.*; spirits, viz. gin and brandy, 2825*l.*; ditto rum, not colonial, 1758*l.*; vinegar, 14*l.*;

wine, 17,418*l.*; coals and charcoal, 347*l.*; gums, 74*l.*; gunpowder, 1176*l.*; incense, 90*l.*; iron, 849*l.*; lead, 249*l.*; liquorice paste, 73*l.*; oil, and linseed oil, 14,385*l.*; salt, 33*l.*; cigars, 13,000*l.*; soap, hard, 1065*l.*; sponges, 333*l.*; tin, 6*l.*; tin plates, 501*l.*; tobacco, manufactured, 555*l.*.—Total, 403,377*l.*

In the foregoing schedule of exports, a return is given of all articles exported, whether of staple commodity imported from abroad, lodged in bond, or transhipped; but as no export duty is levied at this port, and as there are no prohibitions which render an examination into the nature of export cargoes necessary, it has been founded throughout upon data partly hypothetical, and must therefore be considered merely as approximating to the truth.

There has been no possibility of stating, with any degree of precision, the several places to which the articles have been shipped; it is known, however, that the Malta cotton yarn, and the manufactures therefrom, were chiefly destined for Tuscany, the Venetian and Roman States, Ionian Islands, and Barbary.

Manufactures are chiefly comprised in the weaving of cotton, and the spinning of cotton thread, both of which are much prized in Greece, Germany, Barbary, &c. A variety of articles are woven, such as coverlets, table-cloths, towelling, sail-cloth, dresses for the peasantry, &c. This manufacture has long been celebrated: Diodorus Siculus (lib. v.) stated that the cotton cloth of Malta was superior to all other in firmness and softness; and Cicero, in his Oration against Verres, enumerates among the articles of his

plunder certain remarkable fine cotton dresses for women, wrought at Malta, together with 400 amphoræ of Maltese wines.

The value of the cottons manufactured is upwards of 118,000*l*. Black silk stuff is also made. Ship building is on the increase, the Maltese being good carpenters : the timber employed is chiefly from the Adriatic. About 50,000,000 of segars are annually made, and find a market in every port of the Mediterranean. Stone, for paving and building, is quarried and exported in considerable quantities to Constantinople, the Black Sea, Egypt, &c. There are manufactories on a small scale of soap, leather, macaroni, iron bedsteads, &c. The Maltese jewellers are remarkable for the elegance of their gold fillagree-work, neck chains, &c. Salt is prepared in large quantities by exposing sea-water in the cavities of the rocks to solar evaporation. As ship builders, the Maltese are highly prized. Large quantities of sofas, chairs, &c. are annually exported to the Ionian Isles, Greece, and other places.

List of Vessels of all Nations which have entered the
Ports of Malta during the year 1834.

QUARANTINE HARBOUR.					GREAT HARBOUR.					Total Number of Vessels.
Above 30 Tons.		Under 30 Tons.		Tonnage.	Above 30 Tons.		Under 30 Tons.		Tonnage.	
English.	Foreign.	English.	Foreign.		English.	Foreign.	English.	Foreign.		
249	287	16	...	86012	186	457	377	247	76089	1819

Return of the Number of Vessels, &c. belonging to
Malta and Gozo, in January, 1835.

	250 Tons and Upwards	100 to 250 Tons.	20 to 100 Tons.	20 Tons and Under.	Total Number of Vessels.	Total Number of Tons.
Number of Vessels belonging to Malta	15	67	25	40	147	16868
Of which, were built in Malta	9	42	17	40	108	10434
Crews of the above						1522
Number of Boats of all descriptions, belonging to Malta						906
Number of Boats, belonging to Gozo						97
						1003
Number of Men employed.....						2817

GENERAL VIEW.—The most superficial statesman must perceive at a glance the importance of Malta to England; Gibraltar, it is true, is the key to the Mediterranean; but were we only in possession of the “Rock,” the distance of our naval station from the seat of active commerce in Eastern Europe would be attended with very great disadvantages, to say nothing of the commercial emporium which Malta ought to become; in fact we have never yet considered the island in its true light; it has been too much considered as a garrison or naval station, instead of a central depôt for our merchandize—one of those numerous shops or warehouses which our ancestors wisely established for the sale of British goods in different parts of the globe.

History proves that Malta, from the time of the Carthaginians upwards, owed the greatness which it exhibited at various periods to its being a free port; and it has always declined when its commerce was checked by duties and restrictions, or when treated as a mere military post; our government has unfortunately been disposed to regard it in the latter light; the people are denied the exercise of political rights—free public discussion is prohibited—military governors, military secretaries¹, and military officials², abound—and little else is considered but how

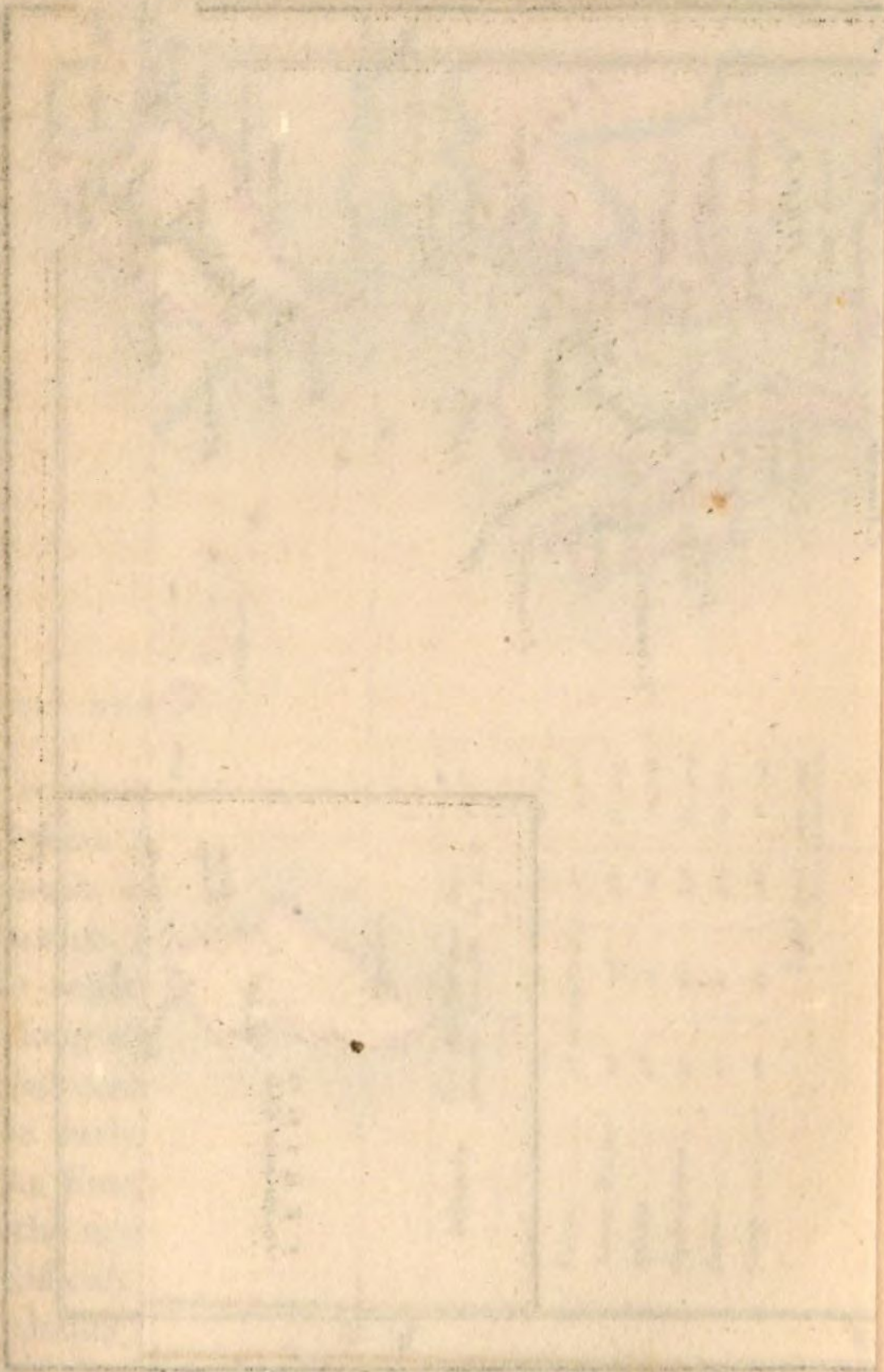
¹ I am given to understand that one of these gentlemen at Malta said “We do not want merchants or traders here; they are troublesome gentry.”

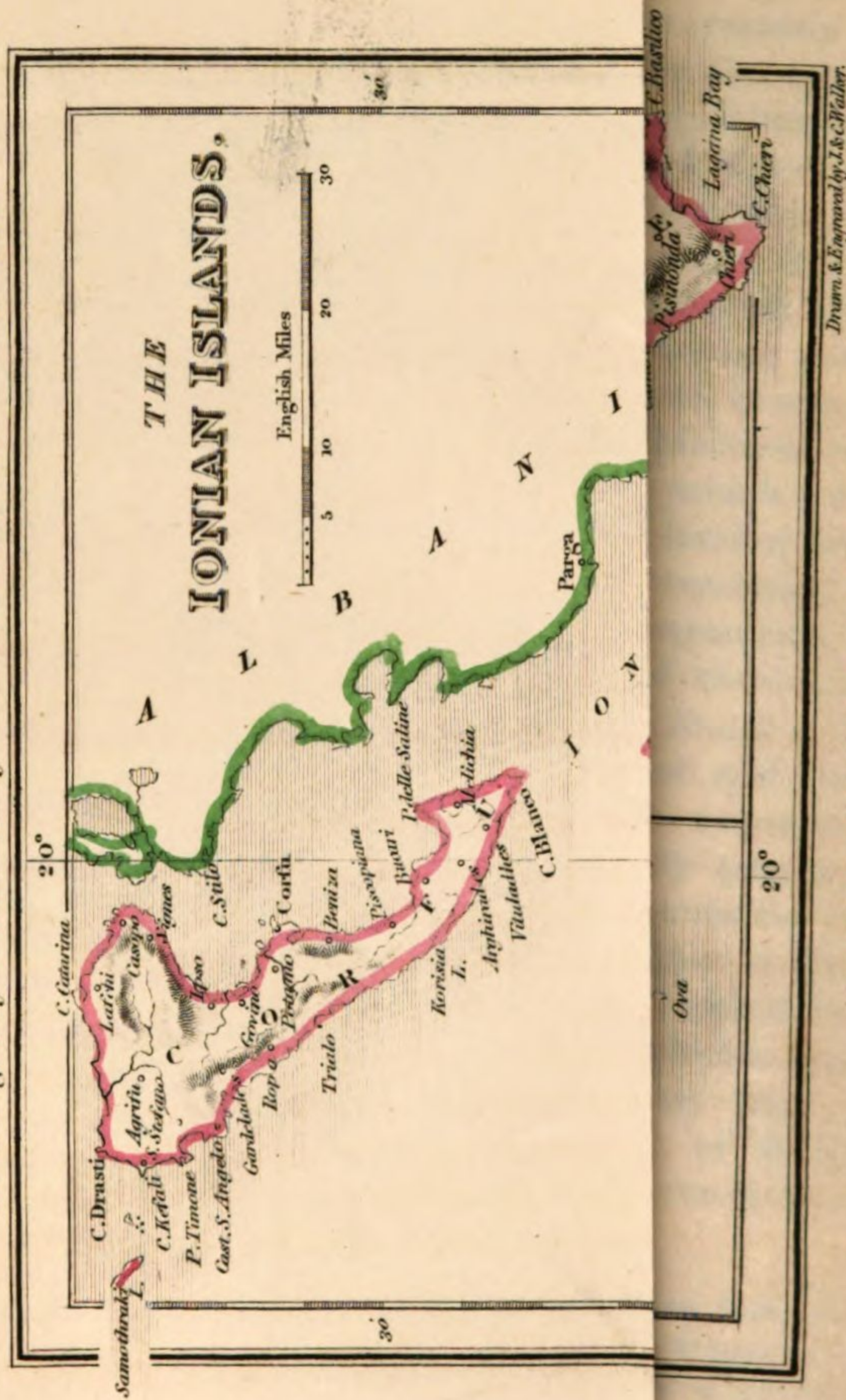
² To such an extent has this been carried, that when Malta had an agent in England, a person arriving in London, and wishing to transact business with him, was told he must go

the revenue may be augmented to the maintenance of salaries and patronage; for which purpose duties are imposed on trade, which should, particularly in a place like Malta, be as free as air; while the quarantine duties imposed for general protection are levied on the goods and passengers arriving in the island, instead of on the national treasury and local income. It is to be hoped that the impolicy of pursuing this pernicious system has been perceived, and that the removal of the duties, from various articles imported into Malta, is but a prelude to the total annihilation of all custom duties, the enactment of which in such a place is as barbarous as it is impolitic. The few merchants who have survived the wreck of so wretched a system (if system it can be called, which is without rule or reason) complain also, and strongly, of the frequent changing of the tariff; within a few years there have been three different schedules, so that no person can count on the stability of the laws which his property is subject to. The state of jurisprudence also, inciting as it does to constant litigation, is unfavourable to the successful prosecution of trade; while the poverty of the people, owing to heavy taxation, combined with a total absence of self-government, aided by a custom house and quarantine duties, renders Malta one of the least prosperous possessions of the British crown. It will cost England nothing to render Malta once more flourishing and happy;—let it be declared a totally free port (the quarantine expenses being levied out of the general down to Windsor, *as the agent for Malta was on duty there as a Cornet in the Dragoon Guards!*

taxes¹)—let a representative assembly be given to the Maltese, with power, of course, to remedy the numerous existing abuses, and to revise the system of taxation now in force. By thus acting, Malta will again become that which nature designed it for—the centre of an active commerce; its industrious and peaceful inhabitants will carry British merchandize in small and large quantities where English ships would not think of proceeding, thus enriching themselves and benefitting us. We owe these boons, or rather let me call them *rights*, to the Maltese, who fought bravely for that political liberty which we so shamefully deprived them of, without having even the plea of conquest to justify our proceedings. I cannot here enter into a detail of the arguments by which the necessity for the adoption of these measures would be supported; they will be found in my “Colonial Policy,” chapters *Government* and *Commerce*; and I therefore conclude with expressing a hope that the Maltese will strenuously persevere in their endeavours to obtain a representative assembly; and that the constituted authorities in England may see the wisdom of no longer considering Malta as a mere military fief, but as a valuable commercial depôt;—and that its inhabitants may be admitted to those rights and privileges of British subjects, to which they have proved themselves so fully entitled.

¹ It is surely quite hardship enough that an individual should be confined, and a merchant have his ship detained, and his goods rifled and fumigated, without demanding payment for what is deemed a public good; if it be so, let the public pay for it, and not the *detenus*.





BOOK III.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

CORFU.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL HISTORY—POLITICAL CHANGES, GOVERNMENT, &c.

THE septinsular union of the Ionian isles, situate in the Ionian Sea, between the parallels of 36° and 40° south, and the meridian of 20° and 23° east of Greenwich, and extending from the Albanian Coast to the southern extremity of the Morean peninsula, have long excited the interest of the classical, political, and commercial world.

The early history of these islands, called by the Greeks Frank isles (*Φραγκονησια*) is so intertwined with the mythology of the Greeks and Romans, that it is difficult for sober truth to find a starting point. The islands would appear to have been early colonized, remained for many years as separate states, were partly in the possession of Corinth, next in

alliance with the Greeks, then with Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, during his invasions of Italy; subsequently Rome gave law to all the little Grecian republics; and on the fall of the Eastern Empire, the Venetian republic afforded protection to, and claimed the sovereignty of, the islands.

In 1737-38, the Turks, who had commenced their efforts for the expulsion of the Venetians from the Morea and other provinces in European Turkey, besieged Corfu, which, notwithstanding repeated assaults, remained the chief of the Ionian Isles under the republic of Venice, the fall of which, beneath the aggrandizing conquests of the Gallic republic, immediately affected the islands, which the French took possession of, but evacuated them on the breaking out of the war in 1798-99, when they were taken under the joint protection of Russia and Turkey; the former becoming, however, the sole protector.

A constitution was organized at St. Petersburg, and afterwards promulgated in due form at Corfu, but which the septinsulars were far from being satisfied with; and by a secret agreement between Alexander and Napoleon, who had then his eyes on Turkey, the islands passed under the dominion of the latter. During the continental war, England took possession of several of the islands, and at the peace of 1815, the septinsular union was placed under the protection of Great Britain, with whom they have since remained¹.

¹ For ample details of the Ionian Isles, see large edition of this work, Vol. V.

CORFU.

Corfu, an island situate at the mouth of the Adriatic, under the 39° of north latitude and 20° of east longitude, 150 miles north of Santa Maura, and the present seat of government of the septinsular union, has been immortalized by Homer under the names *Scheria*¹ ($\Sigma\chi\epsilon\rho\iota\eta$) and (from Phæce the son of Neptune) *Phæacia*:

“Then swelled to sight *Phæacia's* dusky coast,
And woody mountains, half in vapours lost;
That lay before him, indistinct and vast,
Like a broad shield amid the watery waste.”

It was however more early known as *Drepanum* ($\Delta\rho\epsilon\pi\alpha\nu\eta$) Callinach, or *Drepanon* ($\Delta\rho\epsilon\pi\alpha\nu\omicron\nu$), and Apollon, an epithet bestowed on it from its semicircular form or sickle shape, and connected with some mythological dreams. To this epithet succeeded the name of *Macri*, by reason of its length from cape to cape (Sidari to Leftineo). According to Apollonius, the title was derived from Macris, the daughter of

¹ *Scheria*, according to mythology, was a name given in consequence of the overflowing of the waves upon the banks of Epirus, covering a great space of territory. Ceres thereupon complained to Neptune, who arrested the waters; but not before they had separated a portion of land from the continent. It is also asserted that *Scheria* proceeds from the Phœnician word *schara*—commerce; indicating thereby that the inhabitants of this isle were skilled in maritime and commercial affairs.

Aristee : but among the Greeks and Romans its most usual designation was *Corcyra* (Κερκυρα) ; the term *Corcyra* owing its origin to *Corcyra*, the granddaughter of Neptune, or derived from the Arabic word *Cacara*, signifying a land of peace and abundance ; or from *Kekuris*, a peculiarly constructed ship, which the inhabitants were famed for building. The present name of Corfu is said to be derived from Κορυφή, or Κορυφοι, or Κορυφω, to overtop ; alluding to the hill, or turret-like rocks, on which the modern citadel is built, the name being given after the destruction of the Eastern Empire.

According to mythology, Phæace, the son of Neptune, was the first who established himself in the isle ; and Plutarch says that Jason, on retiring from Colchis, bearing with him the golden fleece, touched at the island, and celebrated his nuptials with Medea, when Phæace was king ; but of the Phæacian city not a vestige remains ; the Corfuite antiquarians say that it occupied the site of *Corcyra*, the latter being built on the ruins of the former. Homer ascribes its first colonization to the Hyperians, who built a city and erected several temples to the gods. The successor to Phæace was said to be Alcinous, son of Nausithous, and then follows the story of Ulysses ; but the history of the island commences with a greater appearance of truth where, according to Strabo, Archias, king of Corinth, in voyaging to Sicily, left Chersicrates, with a part of his army, at Corfu, then named *Scheria*. Chersicrates, it is said, made himself master of the place by conquering the inhabitants ; this event took place in the 19th Olym-

piad, about 700 years before the siege of Troy. Certain it is that the Scherians or Corcyreans bore on their medals the winged horse, which was emblematical of Corinth. Chersicrates made war upon, and expelled, the Liburnians, who inhabited the southern part of the island; and the new sovereign commenced his reign in Crisopolis, which Homer makes Ulysses gaze at in wonder, by reason of its magnificent buildings and temples. It is said to have continued subject to the mother country (Corinth) for upwards of a century, but in the wars between Corinth and Athens, the Corcyreans sided with the latter; and, in imitation of them, abolished the monarchy, and founded a republic in its stead. It would appear that the Corcyreans maintained an amity with, but independence of, the several Greek powers; they furnished their contingent of vessels and men to aid in repelling the attack of Xerxes; but when the fickle and ungenerous Athenians were excited against Themistocles, the Corcyreans gave him a hospitable shelter, and refused all heed to the dissimulation or threats of the Athenians for the delivery of this brave commander up to their vengeful ire.

The battle of Leucadia would appear to have been a vigorous attempt on the part of Corinth, aided by the Thebans, Leucadians, Cephallonians, &c. to crush the Corcyreans, who, however, with the assistance of the Lacedæmonians and Athenians, almost totally destroyed the Corinthian fleet of 150 sail, under the command of Xenoclides. The engagement was fought by the Corinthians advancing in line, and being re-

ceived by their opponents with 106 vessels, formed into three columns placed in alternate squares.

During the war between the different republics of Greece, the Corcyreans appear to have sided with the Athenians generally, and to have strenuously resisted the Lacedæmonians, who attempted the conquest of their island, the nobility of which were in favour of the latter; the aristocracy were stoned to death in the temple of Juno, and the democracy of Corcyra revived. About this period Aristotle was compelled by the animosity of the Athenians to seek shelter in Corcyra, owing, it is said, to his infatuated love for a beautiful woman named Ermia, noted for her debaucheries; Cupid triumphed over the philosophy of the chief of the peripatetic sect to such an extent, that he ranked Ermia amongst the goddesses, and celebrated her charms in his daily devotions, which so incensed the Athenians, who accused him of irreligion, that had not the amatory philosopher escaped, his life would very probably have paid the penalty of his love and impiety. Alexander of Macedon, being at this period on his travels along the coast of Epirus, hearing of Aristotle's fame, passed over to Corcyra, and was so pleased with the peripatetic as to offer him an asylum and become his pupil.

A detailed account of the subsequent history of the isle would be out of place here; it is sufficient to state briefly the following events. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, after several unsuccessful attempts, conquered the island, and made use of its fleet and marines in his attempts on Italy, which greatly

weakened the Corcyreans, whose commerce was almost completely annihilated by Teuca, queen of the Illyrians, to whom it was subject in the century before our era, and to check whose cruelties the Corcyreans were obliged to follow the example set them by the little Grecian republics, and place themselves under Roman protection.

The ambassadors sent by the Corcyreans to Rome were, it is said, received with friendship and caresses by the senate, who accepted their offer of becoming a province of the empire, and promised all the assistance needed. During the domination of Rome, the Corcyreans were converted to Christianity, and appear to have sunk into a lesser degree of notoriety, though the weakness of the eastern empire enabled them once more to enjoy a government of their own choice. Corfu, although desolated by Genseric and his vandals in one century (A.D. 466), and by the Goths and Slavonians in another (A.D. 550), yet the islands were still able to assist the Emperor Heraclius against the Lombards (A.D. 638), and Leo the Isaurian against the Saracens, during the siege of Constantinople (A.D. 717-18). At the close of the eleventh century, the naval power of Corfu seems to have been completely annihilated, as it was subdued by Robert Guiscard, A.D. 1081, without offering the slightest resistance; but in the middle of the twelfth century, the Corfuites aided the forces of the Emperor Emanuel Commenus in driving out the Normans, to whom they had voluntarily yielded a short time before; and, at the close of the century, Corfu was annexed to the principality of Epirus and Ætolia, formed by Michael Angelus Commenus at the divi-

sion of the empire. (Gibbon xi. 247, 253). In the latter part of the thirteenth century, it appears to have been conquered by Charles of Anjou, king of Naples, but the reverses sustained by his successors encouraged the Corfuites to assert their freedom, when they drove out the Neapolitan garrison, and established a republican form of government.

The growing power of the Genoese had now alarmed Venice and the other Italian states; and the latter perceiving the advantage to be derived from Corcyra or Corfu, readily granted, on the 28th May, 1386, protection to the Corfuites, who, it is asserted by some, sold their island for 30,000 ducats to the Venetians; but it is more probable that the assertion is founded on the circumstance of Zadislas, king of Naples, having ceded his rights to Corfu in 1401, for 30,000 ducats.

Nothing of moment occurred until the growing power of the Turks in the Morea induced them to turn their attention to Corfu, as an acquisition that would be valuable. The fortress of Corfu was therefore besieged in 1537-38, by Janus Beg and Cheredan Barbarossa, with the arms and fleet of Soliman. Pesaro, who commanded at Corfu, aware of the danger he was exposed to, stripped the galleys of their guns, which latter he placed on the ramparts and out-works,—sent the useless mouths out of the fortress into the interior, and enrolled 4000 men under the orders of Venetian officers, the nobility forming a corps of themselves. Barbarossa and Janus landed their forces on the coast parallel to Potamos, encamping between that village and the town, and opened their batteries with such good effect, that the Cor-

fuites were driven from an eminence commanding the town. Several sorties were made, and the Mussulmans beheld winter approach without gaining much success; while famine and plague made dreadful havoc in their camp, to reinforce which Soliman despatched 20,000 men, and followed them in person; but finding all hopes of conquest futile, he soon drew off the remnant of his shattered army.

Corfu remained unmolested until Achmet III. having entirely conquered the Morea, resolved on the capture of Corfu with a force of 80,000 men. The Venetians, although much weakened by being stripped of all the provinces and islands belonging to European Turkey, prepared for a vigorous defence. Several citizens were allowed to purchase the order of nobility, and with the money thus obtained, a force of 12,000 men was fitted out under Count Schulemburgh, who strengthened the fortifications, and placed the garrison in an efficient state of defence. On the 15th July, 1716, Cogia Pasha, admiral of the Ottoman fleet, having twenty-two ships under his command, approached Corfu; he was met by the Venetian admirals Pisani and Cornari, whose force consisted of two parts, viz. galleys and galliots, under Pisani, and ships under Cornari. Cogia was attacked and defeated by Pisani, and put into Butrinto to repair and embark the troops destined for the siege, a stray division of which disembarked at Vido, and opened a battery on the town and citadel of Corfu; the remainder landed below Potamos, and formed their camp about two miles from the extreme outworks of Fort Salvadore, which, together with Fort Abraham,

was taken by the Ottoman after several hard fought contests. The Seraskier endeavoured to storm the citadel in a night attack; Schulemburgh made a counter sally with 2000 resolute men, and took the Turks by surprise in the rear, who fled, leaving 4000 dead in the trenches.

Among those who perished was Mouchtar Bey, the grandsire of the celebrated Ali Pasha of Yanina, who played such an important part in the affairs of Greece: Mouchtar fell just as he had scaled the ramparts, and his sword was preserved in the armoury at Corfu until its occupation by the French.

After several other unsuccessful attempts, the Turks raised the siege, with a loss of 15,000 men, fifty-six pieces of cannon, several mortars, all the camp equipage, provisions, and the greater part of their baggage. The loss of the Venetians and Corfuites amounted to 3000. Pisani and Cornari pursued the Turkish fleet, captured several of their vessels, took possession of Butrinto, and stormed Santa Maura, putting the whole of the Ottoman garrison to the sword. The Sultan was so exasperated at the result, that Admiral Cogia and the Seraskier commanding the land forces, expiated their loss by decapitation in the very audience hall at Constantinople. The Turks made several other attacks on the island, as did also the Genoese; but the Venetians, aided by troops and funds from Austria, maintained their sovereignty for nearly 400 years.

The fall of the Venetian republic was the prelude to the transfer of Corfu to the French republic: the latter took possession of the island in 1797, but were expelled by the Russian forces on the breaking out

of the war in 1798-9, when Turkey and Russia became its joint protectors. In 1807, the war which commenced between Russia and Turkey gave Ali the Pasha of Yanina a fair pretence for seizing on the continent the towns then belonging to the septinsular Union, or Ionian republic, and by cutting off the supplies, deprived the island of the means of resistance, when General Berthier, with a French force of 17,000 men arrived at Corfu, and drove out the Russians, or as some say, occupied it under the connivance of Alexander; he was shortly after relieved by General Donzelot, who commanded until the arrival of the British in 1814, when Corfu surrendered to our arms on conditional terms.

On the evacuation of Corfu by the French under General Donzelot, Sir James Campbell assumed the civil and military command of the Ionian States¹. General Campbell resigned the command to Sir Thomas Maitland, the Governor of Malta, who, in 1817, proclaimed the constitution, in virtue of which the Ionian Islands are now governed by a Lord High Commissioner, representing the protecting sovereign, a senate, consisting of ten members, (styled the most illustrious) with a president, (his highness) and a legislative assembly, (the most noble) composed of twenty-nine deputies from the different islands, namely, Corfu, seven; Cephalonia, eight; Zante, seven; Santa Maura, four; Cerigo, one; and Paxo, one.—(See Government.)

¹ I should here state, that our present occupation of the Ionian Islands is mainly due to Brig.-Gen. Oswald and Lieut.-Col. (now Lieu.-Gen. Sir Hudson) Lowe.

CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—PHYSICAL ASPECT—MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, AND LAKES—GEOLOGY, SOIL, CLIMATE, AND DISEASES—VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS, &c.

THE island of Corfu, in the parallel of $39^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and the meridian of $19^{\circ} 50'$ east longitude, is situated a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Adriatic; the capital being distant from Otranto about 30 leagues, and 200 from Venice. It stretches from north to south in the form of a semicircle. On the north and west it is bounded by the Mediterranean, and on the north and east by the channel which separates it from Albania, or the ancient Epirus. This channel, which runs nearly south-east and north-west, is about twenty-one geographical miles in length; at its narrowest or northerly entrance, at Cape Karagol, it is not two miles across; at the southerly, between Cape Bianco and Gomenizza, it is about seven miles broad; and at its widest part, in the neighbourhood of the town of Corfu, it does not much exceed ten miles in breadth. The depth of the water, in the deepest parts, varies from forty to fifty fathoms.

The length of the island of Corfu is about thirty-five geographical miles; its breadth, at the north-eastern extremity, about twelve; from whence it gradually lessens until it terminates in its most southerly point, or Cape Bianco. The number of square

leagues are about eighty, of twenty-five to a degree¹.

The island is divided into four districts or bailiwicks: 1st, *Oros*, the mountainous district, which lies to the north-west, and contains Cassopo, the ancient Cassiope, famous for a temple of Jupiter.

2d, *Agiru*, the beautiful district situated between the western and southern parts of the island, remarkable for its fertility.

3rd, *Mezzo*, or the midland district, in which is situated the city of Corfu.

4th, *Lefchimo*, which lies to the south-east, and is so called from the ancient Cape Leucimna, now Cape Bianco.

The aspect of Corfu is decidedly mountainous, particularly towards the Mediterranean, the part opposite the Albanian coast being of less elevation, and presenting a hilly and sloping country. A chain of mountains runs throughout the whole length of the island from north to south, the highest point, Santa Dacca, being estimated at 2000 feet above the sea; another range runs from east to west across the island, appearing like a continuation of the Albanian or Acroceraunian range prolonged from Corfu to the mainland. The highest point of this cross chain, now called St. Salvador, or Παντοκρατωρ, the *Phæacia*, according to some, or, as others think, the *Istone* of

¹ These measurements are derived from the Bureau of the French engineers, as given by Theotky, and by Dr. Hennen, in the work to which I have referred under Malta; but by some the estimate is 120 miles in circuit, 60 miles long, and breadth varying from 35 miles to 5 at its southern extremity.

Antiquity, is supposed to be from 2800 to 3000, or or even 3500 feet ; the view from its summit is magnificent, embracing a vast extent of the Acroceraunian mountains, and even those of Macedonia, the Adriatic sea to the northward, and the Mediterranean to the southward, and in clear weather the continent of Italy itself is visible.

The cross chain is of a rugged character, with many minor collateral offsets in a north and north-west direction. Viewed from the shore, or from a vessel in mid channel, the mountains appear to form a boundary, like an amphitheatre, to the bay where Corfu city stands ; while on the north-west of the bay the shore rises abruptly, here and there dotted with olive groves, and wild-looking, straggling villages. On the opposite side of the bay, the snow cap mountains of Albania, with the ancient *Buthrotum* at their feet, rise in towering magnificence ; the combination of forest, sea, lake, and mountain presenting one of those splendid panoramas on which the eye loves to dwell, and reminding the spectator of the voyage of Æneas—

“ Protinus aërias Phæacum abscondimus arces,
Litoraue Epiri legimus, portuque subimus
Chaonio, et celsam Buthroti ascendimus urbem.”

ÆNEID, lib. iii.—291.

There are three islands in the harbour of Corfu, which are of a horse-shoe shape, extending from the promontory of Cape Mandrachi to Cape Karagot. Situated between these capes, and thus forming a road for shipping, and a defence, is Vido (the *Ptychia* of the ancients), the largest, two and a half miles in

circumference, and one mile distant from the town; it is protected by five forts, and garrisoned by a company of British troops. Candilonipos is a mere rock within cannon shot of Vido, and St. Demetrius, or Quarantine Island, is about two miles east of Vido, and one and a half from the mouth of the Govino harbour or bay, which latter has a narrow entrance, defended by a battery. Govino bay is surrounded on all sides from the wind by mountains and hills, and may be considered the chief naval station of the islands.

To the north-east of Cape Sidero is a small island or rather rock, named Fano, which is supposed to have been the residence of Calypso. After passing Cape Sidero, the coast extends to the distance of twenty miles to St. Angelo. Beyond this cape are some fortified rocks called *Smadrachi*. The shore then ranges without any remarkable point as far as Gardiki, and so on to Cape Bianco, a conical cliff rising from the sea, and known by the name of Lef-chimo, from λευχείμων, signifying whiteness: it is the southernmost point of Corfu.

The city of Corfu, which the inhabitants say was founded by Æneas as a rival to the ancient Phæacia, is built on an irregular promontory, sloping to the north-west, which juts out nearly from the central part of the island on its eastern shore; the promontory being compared to a triangle, having its base united to the island, and its apex towards Albania, with a semicircular bay on either side.

The citadel, or old fort, is built at the very extremity of the triangle. It is remarkable for two rocky

eminences, “*aërias arces*” of Virgil, which add greatly to the natural beauty of the scene. The triangular promontory was by nature peninsular, but it has been completely separated from the main land by a military work or ditch, about 150 yards in length, 80 in breadth, and 40 deep. The sea enters freely at the northern mouth of this ditch; but at its southern end there is a wall which cuts off the communication. The communication with the esplanade is by a drawbridge. Within the citadel, whose circumference is 180 yards, are the old palace, an armory (now used as an English chapel and school), barrack, artillery stores, an hospital, several houses, formerly private property, but now chiefly occupied by officers connected with the government or the army, and one or two churches of the Greek religion. No regular plan is observed in these buildings, except the barracks and the palace; all the others are placed either by chance, or where a level surface presented itself to found them upon.

The palace has some appearance of a regular front; it is immediately opposite the drawbridge. The barracks are on the northern aspect of the citadel.

The esplanade commences at the ditch which insulates the citadel; it is a piece of ground, extending in length from shore to shore, about 450 yards, not quite level, but sloping in a very gradual manner from the southern to the northern shore. It is perfectly free from buildings on the southern side; on the northern are situated the new palace and the old hospital. The breadth of the esplanade from east to west, or from the ditch of the citadel to the com-

mencement of the town, is about 180 yards. One small Greek church projects somewhat beyond the line of the houses of the town, and is the only solid building that can be said at all to encroach on it. This open space forms the parade for the troops, and has of late been much improved by levelling and ornamental planting, and by the erection of a very elegant fountain over a tank, situated towards its southern extremity. The situation is beautiful; looking from the town, the citadel is in front, the mountains of Albania in the distance, and the sea on either hand. A carriage drive has been formed round it, and it has become a place of common resort for the inhabitants and the garrison, for their walks and rides.

The circumference of the town, exclusive of the esplanade, is 2800 yards; its greatest length from the esplanade to the spilea, or sea-gate, is 550 yards, and it is separated from the rest of the island by a strong double circumvallation, which bounds it on the western direction; the northern and southern boundaries consist of a single line wall, along the margin of the sea.

At the extremity of the town is the new fort, built at the latter end of the sixteenth century, but commanded by Mount Abraham, a hill at a small distance from the walls. Towards the land side are chains of outworks and forts extending from the city to Lake Chalichiopolo; in addition to, and beyond these, the French constructed strong lines defended by bastions and redoubts, at intervals with a deep wet ditch extending from the suburb of Castrades almost across the Isthmus, in constructing which the French lost 500 men from sickness. The works are very strong,

mined, and provided with every thing necessary for defence, but it would require 10,000 soldiers to man them.

Corfu city, especially on its flanks, is quite a labyrinth. In the centre, or nearly opposite the entrance to the citadel, there is a range of tolerably good-looking houses, with piazzas, having an eastern aspect; from behind these, two or three principal streets, and as many of a secondary character, run from east to west; these are irregularly crossed by streets and lanes, narrow, straggling, and following no precise direction, being built, apparently, as the natural form of the ground admitted. In these irregular passages, the gables of some of the houses and the fronts of others are intermixed; some are approachable by steps, artificially formed, and others by ledges of the rock, which, by time and a little manual labour, are converted into rude stairs. Formerly, outside staircases projected from almost all the houses; but of late, these incumbrances have been removed, and very few are now to be met with in the more frequented streets. Some respectable houses are scattered here and there through the town, and on the line wall facing the harbour; but the generality of the habitations are of a very ordinary character, consisting of two or three stories, each containing a large hall and a few apartments leading off from it. The floors are almost all of wood, and the stairs, in general, are of the same materials¹.

The number of religious edifices is very considerable, but the metropolitan church of the Greeks pos-

¹ Hennen, page 173.

sesses (in their estimation) a great treasure, viz. the body of St. Spiridione, patron of the island, whose flesh, it is said, yields to the touch, though he has been dead many hundred years. The Corfiots say that the Venetians made several attempts to remove the body to Venice, but the saint always frustrated their evil design. The interior of the church is decorated with chandeliers, lamps, candelabras, &c. of pure gold and silver, according to the taste of the various devout offerers. The Senate-house is a plain, square building, in which also the courts of law are held. The palace of St. Michael and St. George, occupying one side of the esplanade, along which its front extends, is built of Malta stone, and ornamented with a colonnade of fluted Doric. On the west side is a line of uniformly built houses, arched and pilastered so as to form a fine combination with the palace, the whole being nearly a parallelogram, two sides of which are built and the other open, with grounds tastefully laid out in the centre. The theatre was originally built for an exchange, and, with the other public buildings, does not require notice.

Of rivers, there are, strictly speaking, none ; but round the whole island many streams run from the marshy valleys.

Of fountains, the two most classical and most copious are now called the Fountains of Cressida, supposed to be nearly upon the spot where Homer places the scene of the interview between Nausicaa and Ulysses.

Many minor springs of excellent water are dispersed over the island.

Lakes and Marshes (fresh water) are to be found in all directions in the environs of the harbour, and amid the valleys of the more distant hills.

Of *Salt-water Lakes* the principal is at Govino, the old Venetian harbour, which is screened by surrounding hills from almost every wind, and about five miles to the north-west of the citadel. It is rapidly filling up with sand and mud, and a number of marshy spots are found along its banks. The entrance is very narrow, and is growing narrower annually, so that large ships can no longer enter. In 1779, when the Ionian republic was under the protection of the two nations, a Russian and an Ottoman squadron anchored there. In February, 1822, Dr. Hennen made a survey of it, in a small pleasure yacht of less than fifty tons burthen, and frequently came in close contact with the mud. It is from three to four miles in circumference, not including its muddy banks. The Venetians had their docks here, and the ditches and some traces of these works are still to be seen.

Lake Calachiopulo, not more than a mile in a direct line from the works, estimated at from three to four miles in circuit, is celebrated by Homer as the harbour of the ancient Phæacians, and the little island at its entrance is the ship which, on its return from Ithaca, after having conveyed Ulysses thither, was turned into a rock. On its banks were situated the gardens of Alcinous : such is the poet's tale.

Of *Canals* there are none, but there is a work which was cut by the French with the view of strengthening their position in the town of Corfu, by forming a fortified communication from the lake of

Calachiopulo to the bay of Castrades, which Dr. Hennen has ranked under the head of "Canals." This work was commenced some time in 1810; but when the French evacuated the island on the 14th of July, 1814, it was not half finished, although fatigue parties of 2000 men daily, furnished by an army of upwards of 10,000, had been at work on it for such a considerable time.

This ditch is cut with salient and re-entering angles, &c. after the manner of a regular fortified line, along the bottom of the promontory of Monte Ascensione, the eastern boundary of Calachiopulo; it communicated with the lake of Calachiopulo, but the communication was never so opened as to allow of a free flow of the waters from one to the other: at present it is nearly cut off, especially in summer. The French did not remain long enough to achieve the communication with the sea at Castrades. The whole extent of the ditch, as it was left by them, beginning from Castrades, at the distance of 375 English yards from the seaside, and following it along its whole line to the end behind Fort St. Salvador, was 996 French toises of nine feet each. Its breadth, at present, varies from twenty-eight to sixty English feet; in some of the intermediate points it is twenty-four feet broad; in others, forty-five and a half feet. Its depth of water varies from three to nine English feet.

In consequence of the acknowledged unhealthiness of these ditches, the government came to a determination in 1819 to fill them up.

In consequence, nearly the whole of that branch

which extended from the back of St. Salvador to its communication with Calachiopulo (or 456 French toises) was filled up, though not completely, for it still contains much mud and water. The work of filling lasted forty days, during which 9368 peasants were employed, or 234 daily.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The mountains of Corfu are composed chiefly of a compact limestone, destitute of any organic remains, but with occasional strata of flint, precisely similar to the Albanian mountains. In some places carbonate of lime alternates with strata of vegetable earth; and it is often met with tinged with the oxide of iron, and presenting on its surface, when fractured, beautiful arborescences. Fibrous, crystallized, and granular gypsum abounds principally, disseminated in argillaceous deposits; breccia in immense masses, either purely calcareous or with a mixture of silex, is to be met in various parts of the island; in some spots carbonate of lime is mixed with nodules of sulphur, or with coarse jasper: and Dr. Benza, in one spot, found the rare mineral, dolomite. There is a quarry of white marble under the western peak of St. Salvador, of a very fine grain, and well adapted to statuary; and variegated marble is found in small masses widely scattered. The substance known on the Continent as alabaster of Corfu, is a fine gypsum. The lesser hills consist mostly of an argillaceous soil, mixed with lime: the substratum to all the low and cultivated lands in the island, is principally a stiff tenacious clay, very retentive of moisture, and extremely productive.

The island is not apparently of volcanic production,

but would appear to have been separated from the main land by some violent convulsion of nature. Earthquakes, however, are not uncommon at Corfu, and are supposed to originate in the island itself, and not to be shocks in relation to other earthquakes; they generally run from north-west to south-east, and are slight; but in 1745, one shock was so severe as to destroy the palace, bishop's house, and many other buildings. In May, 1819, a severe shock in the interior of the island stopped a copious spring. The great earthquake which not long since damaged Santa Maura and Zante, was not felt at Corfu.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Corfu is nearly tropical, and the animal sensations are influenced more by the winds than by the alternations of the mercury in the thermometer. On an average of four years, the thermometer ranged from 44° to 91° ; the general annual average of rainy days for the four years being $96\frac{3}{4}$. It appears that there is not a month in the year in which rain does not fall for a greater or less number of days, but November and December, February and March, are the most rainy.

Snow very seldom falls in the island, and when it does it soon melts. Sometimes the summit of St. Salvador is covered in patches, which continues for ten or twelve days. On the Albanian mountains the snow begins to fall, generally speaking, about the end of November, and continues till May.

Botta¹ asserts, that in his time the maximum of

¹ "Storia Naturale e Medica dell' Isola di Corfu," Milano, Anno vii. 12mo.

heat of different years did not vary more than 3° or 4° , but that the minimum of cold often varied 6° , 8° , or 10° . Mr. Starkie's tables contradict this. In four years the lowest degree of cold stood 45° , 46° , 46° , 44° , or only 2° in difference, while the highest degrees of heat were, for the same four years, 89° , 90° , 91° , 85° , or 5° of difference.

Winds.—It is difficult in Corfu to ascertain the quarter whence the wind blows; on enquiring of a sailor, the answer will be “I cannot say what it is outside.” When a cloud rises from St. Salvador summit, it is generally succeeded by a north-west wind, scattering the fogs and vapours, as described by Homer;—

“The low-hung vapours, motionless and still,
Rest on the summit of the shaded hill;
Till the mass scatters as the winds arise,
Dispersed and broken through the ruffled skies.”

ILIAD, 5th Book.

Dr. Hennen thinks that these peculiarities of the winds of Corfu depend upon the local situation of the island. The usual remark of the Corfiots is, that their country forms one side of a funnel, very narrow and winding at the mouth, dilated in the middle, and again contracted at the extremity. Two somewhat transverse funnels lie at the extremities of the longitudinal one, formed by the channel which divides Corfu from the main land of Greece. The first and largest of these is that extremity of the Adriatic which runs from Durazzo to the straits of Otranto, and lies to the northward; violent eddy winds blow along the coast of this great inland sea, but without

observing any fixed or regular periods. The second is formed by the more distant gulfs of Arta and Prevesa,¹ which lie to the southward. An easterly breeze commences in them, with daily regularity, soon after sunrise, and continues till near noon. At about three in the afternoon it is succeeded by a westerly wind, which continues till night; and so regular is this alternation, that it requires a strong gale in the Mediterranean to interrupt it: the current also follows this change of winds, and both are sensibly felt as far down as to the westward of Paxo, and far beyond the southern extremity of Corfu. The eastern boundary of the channel of Corfu is formed of lofty and precipitous mountains, covered for more than half the year with snow; the breaks and gullies in these mountains give a direction to the winds corresponding to that particular point upon which they strike. This, of course, must vary as the angle of incidence may vary, and the effect is uniform only in one particular, viz. the cold communicated by the snow to the passing column of air.

From all these peculiar inflections of the wind, nothing is more common than to see vessels steering different courses in the channel, with the breeze "right aft" for each. Thus it often happens that a ship is coming through the north channel, and another through the south, both before the wind, while in mid-channel it is either a perfect calm, or the wind is veering all round the compass. These currents of

¹ The gulf of Prevesa is that portion of sea which lies between Santa Maura and Paxo.

wind do not appear to extend to any great height, for the shipping often feel the breeze, while the flag at the citadel, at about 120 feet above the level of the sea, is lying motionless on the flag-staff.

The most frequent winds of winter and autumn, as felt in the town of Corfu, are east, east-south-east, south, and south-east. In spring and summer they are most prevalent from the north, north-north-east, north-east, and east-north-east. They rarely blow with violence for more than three or four days; but they often continue in the same point for a longer period: all those from a northerly point, sweeping over the mountains of Epirus, are cold; all those from a southerly point are oppressively hot, accompanied with mist and rain.

The sirocco felt at Corfu is not to be compared in intensity and its effects to that experienced in Sicily.

Dr. Benza truly remarks, that it is probable that the quantity of electric fluid is increased in the atmosphere during the sirocco; which if we once admit, we can easily and satisfactorily explain the depressing power of the atmosphere during this wind; why rain almost always follows soon after it; why there is so much watery vapour in the atmosphere, so as to render it thick and hazy; why, during the sirocco, the thermometrical degrees of caloric do not keep pace with our sensations of heat; why sea-bathing almost always relieves the sensations produced by this wind, &c. &c. It is certain that during the sirocco electric meteors are frequent, and when the horizon is clouded, the most beautiful corruscations are seen, and in Sicily during the strong sirocco a

slight friction against the fur of any living animal, or the shaking of woollen clothes, is sufficient to produce sparks of electric fluid.

Fevers, especially of the remittent and intermittent types, are of frequent occurrence, and form nearly two-fifths of the total admissions into the hospitals. The total of all diseases admitted into the hospitals during seven years ending in 1821, was, 15,191, among which were:—common fevers, 3299; typhus, 2; remittents, 1400; quotidians, 342; tertians, 285; quartans, 17; unclassified intermittents, 376; total, 5721. The mortality by fevers of all descriptions was 170, or about 1 in $33\frac{2}{3}$.

Dysentery is the next most important disease treated in the military hospitals of Corfu.

Diarrhœa is also of frequent occurrence; there were treated 605 cases, of which only two died, or 1 in $302\frac{1}{2}$.

Phthisis and pulmonic inflammations, as they occurred at Malta, Gibraltar, and Minorca, bear a proportion of 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ of all the other serious complaints.

The other diseases do not require notice; the plague has several times appeared, and of twenty-eight cases treated in 1816, only three recovered. The process of parturition is easy; twins are common among them, and triplets are not rare. In December, 1807, a Jewess brought forth five children at the seventh month, three of them alive. In point of longevity, the Corfiots are on a par with the other natives of southern Europe, and many old people are to be seen among them. Within the last fifty years,

thirty-five males and thirty-six females died upwards of ninety, and five males and three females at upwards of 100; one of them 116.

Deformity is a rare occurrence among the Corfiots, and monstrosity still more so. In his whole life Dr. Mordo has only met with one monster; in this unique case, the ears were placed on the *occiput*, and the legs and arms were distorted. He has only seen one hare-lip, and one *spina bifida*. In one or two families children have been born with six fingers, and this had continued for four generations. Goitrous persons, and cretins are unknown.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The olive is the principal production of Corfu, yielding in favourable years nearly 10,000,000 gallons of oil. The small grape, from which the well known dried currants are prepared, is next in importance; flax is raised in considerable quantities, but of corn there is not more than four months consumption grown in the island. Various woods are found in the mountains, though not fit for ship building; among them are several sorts of oak, in particular the *Balania*, or *Valonia* (*Quercus Ægilops*), the acorn of which affords a useful dye-stuff.

Cyprus and palm trees are common, and the plains in many places are covered with the *cactus indicus*, *agnus castus*, *salvia pomifera*, myrtle and other odoriferous plants; potatoes and other vegetables, are excellent; as are also the numerous fruits, including the fig, orange, citron, pomegranate, melon, apricot, peach, plum, pear, apple, &c. Several medicinal plants flourish, such as the *colchicum*, *hyosciamus*,

momordica, elaterium, scilla maritima, ricinus, smilax aspera, &c.¹.

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—There are no animals peculiar to the island, and, owing to the scarcity of pasture, few cattle are maintained. It is a curious fact that dogs are with difficulty reared: hares and rabbits are met with, but deer and other large game are unknown.

Birds of prey, *accipitres*, are rare in Corfu. The vulture is sometimes met with, and hawks and owls are occasionally seen. Of the orders *pici*, *coraces* and *passeres*, the variety to be met with (particularly of the latter) is very great; and they are almost indiscriminately used for food by the Corfiots. Among the *gallinæ*, the domestic fowls are good and plentiful; but the turkey is principally imported from Albania and the Morea. Pigeons, both tame and wild, of different species, are found in vast numbers. Partridges, both of the common and red-legged kind, are plentiful. The *tetrao coturnix*, (or quail, a migratory bird), is, in the season, very abundant, as are also most of the migratory birds of Europe.

Among the *grallæ*, storks and herons are occasionally met with; but the *scolopax rusticola*, or woodcock, is found in the greatest profusion; many, also, are imported from Albania. Snipe, red-shank, plover, and other species of *scolopax*, are also abundant.

Of the *anseræ*, or water-fowl, the supply is im-

¹ For a list of plants indigenous to Corfu, see the large edition of my "History of the British Colonies," vol. V. p. 343.

mense, including many species of the anas or duck tribe, as wild duck, widgeon, teal, &c.

In the markets of Corfu we find a variety of fish, the principal of which are as follows:—

Among the cartilaginous fishes, various species of the genus *raia*, especially skate, and various species of the genus *squalus*, especially dog-fish. The beautiful *pegasus draconis* (or sea horse) is often found. Of the *acipenser*es, the sturgeon is occasionally seen. Of the order *apodes*, we meet with various kinds of eels and sword fish. Of the *jugulares*, the star-gazer (*uranoscopus*), the weever (*trachinus draco*), the blenny, the whiting and the pollack, are the most common. Of the *thoracici*, the *echeneis remora*, or sucking fish, is very common; and, though rejected even by the shark, is eaten by the lower orders of the Corfiots. We also find the john dory, the plaice, the sole, various species of the *sparus*, or gilt-head, the perch, the pilot fish, the mackerel, the bonito, the dolphin, miller's thumb, the little sea scorpion, and the mullet of the Romans, *mullus barbatus*. Of the *abdominales*, we meet the anchovy, the trout, pike, tench, and the roach. The river fish are not natives, but imported from Albania. The most noted fish of Corfu is the *mugil cephalus*, or grey mullet. It is caught in great quantities in the lake of Calachiopulo, where it is called *chefali*, probably from the great size of its head. It is a delicious fish, and from its roe, mixed with that of another species caught in Bucintro, the Corfiots prepare their *botargo*: they first salt the roes, then smoke them, and preserve them in oil.

Of *mollusca*, the star-fish, cuttle fish, and echinus, are very abundant. Many of this class are dried, and are a common article of food; they are glutinous if well dressed, but otherwise tough and leathery.

Of *crustacea*, the crab, craw fish and shrimp are abundant; and the lobster is frequently met with.

Of *testacea*, the razor-fish, pinna, oyster, muscle and scalop, are abundant; and in Calachiopulo, the cockle is found in vast quantities, and of excellent quality.

Of the *cetaceous* tribe, the *delphinus phocæna*, or porpoise, and the *delphinus delphis*, or dolphin, of the ancients, are very common.

Many, if not most of the fish exposed for sale in Corfu, come from the coast of Albania. The Corfiots assert that, since the last siege, the fish have been frightened away from their shores.

The principal places for catching fish are Calachio-pulo, Govino, and the neighbourhood of Gerovolio and Bucintro. They are taken by nets, by the line, and occasionally by means of a deleterious substance which intoxicates them, called "Splono." The basis of this is *verbascum*, a plant which, although in England we look upon it as merely mucilaginous, is, both by Haller and Linnæus, considered as anodyne, to man at least. Some species of *euphorbium* are used for a similar purpose. Dr. Hennen says that, in fishing for *polypi*, *echinides*, and cuttle-fish, the fishermen throw a few drops of oil on the surface of the water, and having thus rendered it calm, they

drop their bait to the fish, to which it soon affixes itself.

Mordo speaks of a fish caught in a valley near Corissia, which, though of a very delicate flavour, is unwholesome.

Coral is found in small quantities near Cape Sidero and Cape Bianco : it was formerly an object of commerce. Corallina is also found upon the coast of Corfu ; and sponge and many other zoophytes are abundant.

Venomous reptiles are either unknown, or very scarce, at Corfu. Among the harmless kinds, are the land tortoise, the frog, common lizard, and the harmless *coluber beres*, or adder. Corfu abounds with insects : among them are the tick, by whose ravages so many museums have been destroyed ; *chrysomela*, of various species ; *lampyris*, or glow-worm ; *blatta*, or cockroach ; *mantis* ; *meloe* ; a great variety of *papiliones* ; the *gryllus*, *cicada*, *tipula*, &c. &c. The beautiful moth *phalæna junonia*, is occasionally to be met with, as also the *lepisma*, the *scolopendra*, and the *scorpio europæus*, whose bite, however, is not poisonous.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION—THEIR NUMBERS, CHARACTER, MANNERS, RELIGION, &c.—EDUCATION—THE PRESS, &c.—STAPLE PRODUCTS, AGRICULTURAL AND COMMERCIAL—PRICES THEREOF—MONETARY SYSTEM—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—SHIPPING—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, &c.

CORFU being the capital of the septinsular union, I proceed to shew in this place the whole population of the islands, each settlement having, however, a detail of its own inhabitants. We have no early censuses; according to the Colonial Office returns, the following shews the

Population of the Ionian Islands from 1824 to 1834.

Years.	Population.		Total.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.		Agri- culture.	Manufac- ture.	Com- merce.			
1824			175902						
1827			180301						
1828	104625	90698	195323	40783	9508	4804	6159	1196	5332
1829	101611	88287	189898	37813	7574	4418	5606	1186	5018
1830	100447	87027	187474	34646	6111	3693	5861	1431	5498
1831	99854	88836	188690	38883	5793	3669	6127	1314	4673
1832	103394	89452	192846	33371	5329	4408	5776	1564	4306
1833	103579	90588	194167	39768	6092		5897	1400	5013
1834	103920	90475	194395	41042	5829	4363	6242	1424	4818

The following table shews the population by islands in 1832:—

Islands.	Area in Square Miles.	Total.				Aliens and Resident Strangers.*		1834.						
		Males.		Females.		1832.	1834.	Population to the Square Mile.	Persons employed in.			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
		1832.	1834.	1832.	1834.				Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.			
Corfu	227	32105	32909	27734	27981	6764	9040	268	15077	1621	1443	2507	597	1672
Cephalonia ..	348	31304	30875	25285	25951	340	348	163	12689	1471	835	1567	286	799
Zante	156	19033	18991	16389	16632	1353	1217	228	7672	1947	421	974	284	1181
Santa Maura	180	9702	9592	8406	8258	217	195	99	2458	132	470	525	110	811
Ithaca	44	4798	4902	4587	4664	118	108	217	1407	196	931	246	52	128
Cerigo	116	3945	4091	4605	4488	41	37	74	1522	264	198	248	61	118
Paxo	26	2507	2560	2446	2501	313	223	195	217	198	65	175	34	109
Total ..	1097	103394	103920	89452	90475	9146	11168	177	41042	5829	4363	6242	1424	4818

* Included in the total number of population.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that the present population of Corfu is upwards of 66,000, from which it would appear that the number of inhabitants within the present century is on the increase, as shewn by the following census, taken in November, 1802 :—

Within the Town.

Men, Women and Children of the Greek persuasion, 4700 ; do. do. Latin, 1600 ; do. do. Jewish, 1229 ; total within the town, 7529 : in the suburbs of St. Rocco, 508 ; do. Manduchio, do. do. 1829 ; do. Potamo, do. do. 2192 ; do. Castrades, 2160 ; total in the town and suburbs, 14,218 : population in the 24 midland villages, 7706 ; do. 44 northern, do. do. 12660 ; do. 34 southern, do. do. 5169 ; do. Island of Fano and Merlice, do. do. 773 ; total population, 44,926.

The classification of the inhabitants in the town was as follows, according to the same census :—

Section.	Proprietors.				Number of Proprietors.	Servants.	Indigent People.	Children.
	Rich.	Middle Class.	Lower Class.	Poor.				
First Section	12	45	165	392	614	51	54	230
Second do.	44	40	149	336	569	48	44	239
Third do.	26	59	231	441	757	78	106	295
Fourth do.	24	51	205	415	695	97	44	249
Fifth do.	5	19	54	147	225	24	49	86
Sixth do.	24	17	93	379	513	66	116	201
Seventh do.	22	48	84	358	512	65	75	198
Total No. .	157	279	981	2468	3885	429	488	1498
of Jews .	13	23	171	507	714	...	100	415
In all . .	170	302	1152	2975	4599	429	588	1913

A curious table of the Roman Catholic inhabitants of the city of Corfu was prepared by Dr. Benza, and the following is an abstract of a voluminous series of reports :—

Years.	Born.			Dead.			Died more than 90 Years old.		Died more than 100 Years old.		Born.	Marriages.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Twins, and more.	
From 1770 to 1820 inclusive.												
51	3071	2750	5821	5109	3217	8326	35	36	5	3	44	2235

So that the marriages were to children born nearly as 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$, and twins stand to marriages as 1 to $50\frac{3}{4}$, and to births as 1 to $132\frac{1}{4}$.

The deaths in this table bear no proportion to the marriages and births. They exceed the latter by 2505; hence we might be led to conclude that the Roman Catholics of Corfu would be extinct in fifty years. Dr. Hennen supposes that the great difference between births and deaths is owing to the following cause: under the Venetians and the French, all soldiers and sailors who died here were entered in the register, which increases the number of deaths above that of births. The French, in particular, lost more than 2000 soldiers in the excavation of the ditch, which is the reason of the *plus* of deaths. In fact, in the register of the citadel Catholic parish,

where neither soldiers nor sailors were buried, the births exceeded the deaths a thirteenth¹.

The Ionians partake in some general features of the Greek physical configuration. The upper and front parts of the skull are well developed; the features are, in general, pleasing, and wear an air of intelligence. The complexion, in healthy persons, inclines towards olive; and in some of the females, who are not exposed to the sun, it is clear and white. The complexion of the peasantry is, of course, much affected by the sun. Those who reside in the Lefchimo district in particular, and in the neighbourhood of marshes, in general have a sickly leucophlegmatic cast. The eyes are almost universally brilliant and full, in both sexes, and generally dark-coloured; the teeth good; the hair generally brown or black, and bushy in the men; the beard copious; the figure of the middle standard—sometimes beyond it,—and, if not indicative of strength, promising activity. The constitution sanguineo-choleric; the gestures vivacious; the gait erect and elastic, and the enunciation voluble and emphatic.

The females are, in general, well formed, many of them handsome, but they soon fall into years.

The Corfiots are abstemious in their diet, but passionately attached to smoking tobacco. Dancing is a favourite amusement, and their national dance is supposed to be the same with the ancient Pyrrhic dance; a circle is formed by men and women joining handkerchiefs; the circle opens, and the leading per-

¹ Hennen.

son goes through the evolutions of the dance, which consists of forming and reforming the circle; sometimes completely; again only to half its extent; sometimes it doubles back on itself; very often, the leader passes through the middle of the waving line, under the uplifted hands of the dancers, and is followed by the whole train: after a variety of movements of this description, which seem entirely arbitrary, the first leader is succeeded by another. During the whole continuance of this performance, the leader alone is the active person.

There is another dance, principally executed by men, in which they form circular and other figures, and use considerable muscular exertion, leaping from the ground and stamping upon it with great perseverance.

The open air is the usual scene of performance. The theatre, singing, music, and village fêtes, are also favourite amusements among the Corfiots. Their instruments are the fife, lute, guitar, violin, and drum. Amongst the most interesting amusements of the Corfiots, is the “chiostra publica.” This is in imitation of the former knightly custom of tilting at the ring. The chiostro takes place generally in the summer, but the period is left entirely to inclination. A long course of strong wood-work is erected on the esplanade; about two-thirds of the way a string is drawn across on the tops of two elevated posts, and from it is suspended the ring; the latter is divided into a certain number of circles, and the candidate who hits nearest and fairest in the inner one, wins the prize, which is sometimes a sword of considerable

value, or something of equal amount. Seats are erected on each side the course for the accommodation of the spectators. In front of the ring are seated the judges. This ceremony is attended by all the principal people, together with a vast concourse of the lower orders. Those "preux chevaliers" who engage in the affair are gaily dressed, attended by squires; their horses are likewise richly caparisoned: the lances of the competitors are above six feet long, having at the end a sharp steel point¹.

Like the Greeks they are fond of amusements, or a state of listless idleness, for which the numerous festivals of their church afford them ample opportunity. In this respect they still maintain their ancient character; and in speaking of this trait of the modern Greeks, we may still apply to them Cicero's remark on the "summum Græcorum otium" of their ancestors.

The character of the Ionians has been severely stigmatized as the very lowest in Europe; Dr. Hennen, after adverting to the exceptions, says,—

"Vanity is the predominant characteristic of almost every individual, however low in rank he may be. But of what are they vain? Among them, before they came under the British protection, justice was openly sold to the highest bidders; public faith was unknown; and as to individual veracity, Greek falsehood (*Græcea mendax*) is proverbial. The instances are rare in which these islanders do not exhibit an uncontrolled propensity to revenge, litigation, and political intrigue, cloaked under the thin veil of patriotic enthusiasm for the national glory. These objects they pursue with all the pertinacity of vice, and

¹ Kendrick.

with scarcely one redeeming qualification. Tyrannical to their inferiors, they are to their equals and superiors what Juvenal long since described them :

‘ *Adulandi gens prudentissima.*’—*Sat.* iii.

“ Their clergy are taken from the very scum of the population, and are with few exceptions, illiterate, superstitious, and immoral. Their nobles are without honour, their merchants without integrity, and their peasantry ignorant and degraded to the most abject degree.

“ Whence this lamentable decadence may have proceeded, this is not the place to investigate. It pervades all ranks, from the palace (and every house of more than ordinary size is called a palace) to the cottage. That the Greek character, in general, has been greatly debased by their long endurance of Turkish and Venetian tyranny, as exerted on the continent and in the islands, is agreed on all sides, and is consonant with what the history of man has in every age presented to our view ; but one of the principal causes is to be found in the depravity and ignorance of their clergy. Many of these persons can barely read their breviary : few, if any, acts of private atrocity, or rebellion, have occurred in the islands, which have not been planned and in part executed by the priests, and there are few gangs of robbers or pirates which have not their chaplain.”

The foregoing is a gloomy picture, dark in its outline, and repulsive to behold ; and though in some points correct at the time it was written, it would be scarcely possible to get any considerable number of individuals in a large community to whom it would apply : that the Greeks are a sunken and debased people is too true ; but so are every people who have been long subject to the demoralizing influence of despotism, which chains down every noble faculty of the soul, and gives fearful luxuriance to the host of evil passions to which, unfortunately, the heart of

man is prone ; but as education spreads, and the gross superstitions of the Greek church fall into desuetude, it may be expected that the Greek and Ionian character will regain the lofty position it once held ; for, assuredly, the soil capable of producing so rank a crop of noisome weeds, is equally adapted for a more generous and useful tillage.

As long as the Ionians remained under the Neapolitan rule, little or no improvement could be expected ; and the ascendancy of the lion of St. Mark wrought, of course, no great change in their moral condition. The criminal guilty of ten murders, was only punished with ten years of the galleys ; whilst the offence of having spoken disrespectfully of one high in office, received a sentence of ten years of like punishment ; hence the frequency of the higher crimes, and the proneness to flattery of which the Greeks are accused. The Venetian policy was to foment discord in the neighbouring states of the Osmanli, and hordes of miscreants were constantly in the pay of the republic for that purpose ; the provisions requisite for the garrison of Corfu were purchased from these people, and paid for with munitions necessary for carrying on their brigandage. On the commission of crime in the islands, the perpetrators were received with open arms by these people, where they remained until they had amassed sufficient wherewith to purchase oblivion, bringing, on their return, the evil habits acquired during years of licentiousness ; the state thus encouraging the worst crimes by the sale of impunity. With the

lower classes, education was utterly neglected, and the peasantry were in the most degraded state of ignorance. In the higher and more opulent, it was customary to send the cadets of families to the universities of Padua and Venice, where all they learned was to forget their native language, its practice being forbidden in the law or other courts, and its use held as vulgar to any but menials. Commerce was diverted from its legitimate channels, or so trammelled with restrictions as to become subservient to the aggrandizement of Venice alone; thus baffling every prospect of honourable occupation in its pursuit with the Ionians, and forcing those bred to the sea into a life of piracy. Under the dominion of either France or Russia, this state was in no degree improved; the sway of either power was of so short duration, or they were so much engaged in weightier matters, as to pay little attention to the islands.

With the British a brighter period commenced—improvements rapidly advanced; and it is only just to state the moral feeling kept pace with external progression. Nothing tended more to ameliorate the state of the islands than the disarming the population. Prior to this act, a dagger and pistols formed part of the national costume; hence, on the slightest excitement, these were put in requisition, and assassination, with its train of attendant consequences, followed. On the promulgation of any edict inimical, or supposed to be inimical, to the inhabitants of a district, the inhabitants of the place at once assembled, setting the civil force at defiance, and frequently requiring large

bodies of military to restore order; happily, this measure put an end to scenes of the kind, and assassinations are not now more frequent than in other countries.

In character, the Ionian differs materially from the Greek of the continent;—he is quick to devise, and prompt to execute, and surprisingly intelligent. In effecting his object he has more enterprize, although he is less fastidious in the means he employs, than the Moreot;—in religious matters he has as much bigotry, and more bombast in relating his actions. The most efficient weapon a Greek possesses loses nothing with the Ionian; the tongue is ever the readiest resource, although it has not the refinement of the Asiatic or Fanariote Greek. No people are more patient under privation; hunger, thirst, heat, and cold, the Greek endures with undaunted resolution; a morsel of black bread, a few olives, an onion and his capote, and the Greek has food and shelter—is contented and happy. His vices are those of large communities, and are rather inherited from those who have governed him, than natural to him. In his village unpersecuted, the peasant is the same unsophisticated being he is elsewhere, and he only requires to be released from the degrading influence of the priesthood, and the oppressive tyranny of the nobles, to equal others of his class. The fondness for religious processions so observable in him, is solely owing to the desire of the priest to uphold his own influence and wealth.

The Corfiot gentleman is stigmatized as “subtle and adroit, cloaking his evil qualities under the mask

of courtesy¹." At the period of these remarks there was doubtless much truth in them; the islands had seen in a very short space so many rulers, that on Great Britain assuming the protection, the better class of Greeks hardly knew what course to pursue; still, even now, there is a strong inclination to verbosity in his conversation, sometimes approaching to servility. Those vices at which human nature revolts, are at the present day held in just abhorrence and detestation; and examples are not wanting in the higher classes which would do honour to any age or country, either as practising the virtues which grace society, or promoting everything tending to increase the welfare of their countrymen.

From the long dominion of the Venetians, society altogether took its tone from that people; and many of their old customs are still retained. Formerly the female part of the creation was closely secluded, rarely or never mingling with the males. Their education seldom extended beyond a knowledge of the tambour frame. At times a dark eye might be seen peering from the corner of a jalousie, or verandah—more of the fair form was rarely seen. At present the Ionian ladies participate in all public amusements, such as balls, fêtes, and entertainments, which at Corfu are very frequent during the winter months; English and Greeks freely mixing and enjoying themselves with all the refinement and ease common to the most polished assemblies, the variety of costume and language giving these meetings a

¹ Goodison's Ionian Islands.

charm found in few *réunions* of the kind in other countries. Formerly the reputation of the fair Ionians stood on no very high ground for chastity; and it is to be lamented that frequency of divorce still forms a strong feature.

With the Russians, although of the same religion, there was little reciprocity of feeling, and still less with the French; and on Great Britain becoming the protecting power, the islanders mixed little with them, their meetings being confined to visits of ceremony. The present good understanding which animates all parties, is mainly attributable to the hospitality of the several presidents of the senate, first commenced by Baron Theotoky, whose presidency was a singular example of refined and elegant hospitality.

The dress of the Corfiots is much improved within these few years, as far as the higher orders are concerned, and the English and French fashions are adopted among them; but the peasantry have made no alteration in their dress for centuries. It chiefly consists of a wide capot of thick felt (the principal ingredient in which is goats' hair), or coarse shaggy woollen cloth in summer, and of an additional article of the same material in cold or wet weather. The capot is very rarely taken off; the under-dress is a woollen vest, large breeches of coarse cotton, called *thoraké*, with cloth leggings, and a coarse sandal of undressed hide, secured by thongs, or a shoe of half-dressed leather scarcely less rude. This is the national dress of the aboriginal peasantry; but the settlers, whether Albanians, Moreots, or others, retain some traces of their native costume, as the red

skull-cap, the turban, &c. &c. A girdle, or zone, of silk or cotton, is almost invariably worn round the waist by both sexes. The better classes wear a double-breasted vest, usually made of blue or marone-coloured velvet, with a double row of hanging gold or silver buttons, descending from the shoulder to the waist, generally bordered with broad gold lace, and fastened with a sash of coloured silk; cossack trowsers, cut short at the knee, or the white Albanian kelt or petticoat; white stockings and buckled shoes complete the dress. The hair is worn floating on the shoulders by the men, and by the women platted and hanging down to the heels, and a handkerchief on the head.

The women are loaded with as much clothes of coarse cotton, silk, or brocade, as they can procure; and are passionately fond of every species of ornament, especially necklaces, ear-rings, and girdle buckles. The vests are made like those of the men, of rich velvet, ornamented with gold lace, and flowing open; beneath is worn a beautiful cestus, or girdle, fastened in front by a clasp of gold or silver, and highly wrought. The petticoats are of pink or blue, richly bordered and spangled: no stays are worn, the costume fitting closely to the waist all round; high-heeled shoes, with very large silver buckles, complete the attire. Many of them tinge the nails and tips of the fingers of a pink colour, and the practice of inserting powdered antimony along the edges of the eyelids is very common, especially among such as come from the islands of the Archipelago. This application gives a certain degree of brilliancy to the

eyes; but there is a physical peculiarity in the eye of a Greek which requires but little aid from art, and fully justifies the term of "ox-eyed," so frequently applied to them. Cosmetics and perfumes are also much used among them.

Mats spread on the floors are in use among the poorest classes; but, generally speaking, in the towns, and in the better order of houses in the villages, there is to be found a good bed, stuffed with wool, hair, or straw, and placed either on a regular bedstead, or on boards and tressels. In lieu of blankets, a counterpane thickly quilted and stuffed with wool, forms a very common and a very comfortable substitute. The Greek females pride themselves on the elegance of their beds; they are covered with silk, and embroidered counterpanes, &c., and with ornamental pillows, in proportion to the fortune of the owner. The generality of the middle, and the whole of the lower order of people, sleep in their ordinary clothes, and rarely change their personal or bed linen oftener than once a month. A few chairs, tables, and chests of drawers, of an ordinary description, a copper cooking kettle, and some earthen pots and pans of a very coarse kind, complete their furniture.

RELIGION.—The Greek Church is the predominant faith of the islanders, the followers of the Latin or Romish faith being few—probably not exceeding 3000: of Jews there are about 5000 in the island, all of whom are cordially hated by the Corfiots. The Romish Church was introduced into the island by the Venetians, and at first was only a bishoprick, but Pope Gregory, in 1600, elevated the see to an arch-

bishoprick ; the chief being generally a noble Venetian, chosen by the Senate, whose nomination was attended to by the Pope. The cathedral has a chapter composed of six canons, who elect a grand vicar. The clergy of the Latin Church were heretofore paid by government stipends, but excepting life interests, this system has, I believe, been now discontinued.

The Latin and Greek Churches at Corfu have had many quarrels on the score of superiority—the latter claiming the right of precedence, which, indeed, the Venetian government secretly favoured ; but Paul III. enjoined his clergy to cease all further quarrels, since which the Greek Church has never been subject to any persecutions, and during Passion week the Catholic and Greek Churches have alternate processions on the esplanade. Idolatrous as the rigid Protestant may esteem the Latin Church, the Greek is tenfold more so ; no Hindoo or other pagan mythology could more abound in superstitious rites than the Greeks, who hold no fewer than four lents, occupying 191 fast days in the year, during some time of which fish even is proscribed, and bread and vegetables alone permitted.

The Greek Church has for its head a protopapa (archpriest), elected by ballot in an assembly of the clergy and nobles, and confirmed by the patriarch at Constantinople. The new protopapa is decorated with his robes in the hall of assembly, and conducted home amidst the ringing of bells and the firing of petareroes. The protopapa of Corfu is distinguished from that of the other islands by the title of grand protopapa, and his authority is equal to that of a

bishop. The office lasts five years, at the expiration of which time he returns into the number of ordinary priests or papas. The cathedral has its canons as the Latin Church, but they have no fixed prebend; the honour of being at the head of their Church is the only advantage they derive from their canonry. They are distinguished by a violet-coloured girdle. Marriages, baptisms, and funerals procure them some remuneration. The expenses of these ceremonies are, generally, eleven livres to the protopapa, and three to each canon, with a wax candle of a pound weight. One of the most lucrative articles, and, at the same time, one of the most powerful means of retaining the people in their credulity, are excommunications. Not long since, for the smallest sum a Greek might excommunicate his neighbour, who had it also in his power to retaliate by another excommunication, which rendered null that of his adversary. The same priest performed both parts with equal zeal. These thunderbolts of the Greek Church cost the poor creature who had recourse to them dearly. The ceremony was performed in public in the street, and opposite the house of him who was to be excommunicated, and the success was considered sure, when one had the means of seeing the protopapa himself, who came at the head of his clergy to pronounce the anathema, and for the execution of which he proceeded to the house of the individual in a habit of mourning, a black wax candle in his hand, preceded by a large crucifix and a black banner; his suite all clothed in lugubrious stile. The imprecations were accompanied with violent gestures, and from that moment the excom-

municated was excluded from church, and deprived of the prayers of the faithful—restoration being only effected by a counter excommunication. If the sinner had not the means of paying the expense, it often happened that he revenged himself by assassination. Since our Government has been established we have effected a modification of this demoralizing pagan rite, and excommunication can now only take place by the sanction of the archpriest or protopapa. Is it not lamentable to think that both the Greek and Latin Churches should have so long perpetuated a barbarous custom which I have seen practised among every species of idolater, from the refined Hindoo down to the savage Negro? The number of churches is very considerable: the officiating priest is chosen annually by the parishioners. In the country, most of the churches have been built by individuals, who, as proprietors, nominate the papas. The property of the church of St. Spiridion is vested in a private family, and who has the right of inspecting into its revenues. Eight days previous to the festival of St. Spiridion, the doors, windows, and steeple of the church are ornamented with festoons of laurel and myrtle. On the eve of the festival, the shrine which contains the body of the saint, whole and well preserved, is exposed to the veneration of the people. The saint is upright, dressed in his pontifical robes; over the shrine is supported a beautiful silk canopy. The head of the government attends the procession¹, with

¹ This absurdity ought to be done away with. In granting full toleration and protection to every form of religion, there is no necessity for the head of the Government and the repre-

the military staff, and a large proportion of the garrison under arms; a band goes before. It first moves towards the citadel, where a royal salute is fired from each battery. They then make the round of the esplanade, and proceed along the wall on the harbour side, where a salute is fired by each ship of war, decorated with her flags. The ceremony is often interrupted by the sick who are placed under the shrine, in the full confidence of a cure. It often happens that amongst those some are seized with frightful convulsions, which the papas know well how to turn to their account.

In all public calamities the relics of the saint are exposed with the most religious confidence. The church of St. Spiridion enjoys the revenues of some lands which pious individuals have bestowed for its support. The devotion of the insulars afford a very considerable produce. The mariner and the artizan believe that they ensure the success of their speculations in sacrificing a part to St. Spiridion. No boat leaves the port in which the saint has not an interest in the profits of the voyage.

The churches and chapels in the Ionian Isles, 31st December, 1834, were, of the Greek Church, in number 2226, and the annual salaries of the priests about

representative of our Sovereign being made a participator in a heathenish system of idolatry, which degrades man below the level of brutes. The East India Company, although governing 100,000,000 people with a handful of Europeans, stoop to no such servility, and which indeed lessens, instead of creating, respect for the Government.—R. M. M.

8000*l*. Of the Greek Churches 121 were public, 908 belonged to corporate bodies, and 1197 were private property. The number of Latin Churches was 13; the expense 1010*l*.

EDUCATION AND SCHOOLS.—At Corfu there is a public university, also an ecclesiastical seminary for the education of young men intended for the priesthood of the Greek Church; and in each of the islands of the state is a school entitled “secondary,” maintained at the public expense, in which secondary schools the scholars are instructed in the Greek and Latin classics, in the modern Greek, English, and Italian languages, in arithmetic, and the elementary mathematics.

In the chief town of each island is a central school, likewise at the government expense, on the mutual instruction plan, for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic; and in these schools the village schoolmasters are trained in the method of mutual instruction. Besides these schools, entirely at the public expense, there are in each island district schools on the same plan as the central, where similar instruction is given, the expense being defrayed by the parents of the children. The terms per scholar vary greatly, according to the particular agreements stipulated between the masters and parents, and are frequently paid in kind. Government also contributes to the establishment of these schools, by furnishing books, slates, benches, &c., and where no suitable church exists, by providing a school-house.

The district and village schools are under the im-

mediate superintendence of the head master of the central school in each island, and there is an inspector-general of all these schools.

The whole of the establishment for education is under the general direction of the commission for public instruction, revised and improved by Lord Nugent, and the number of public schools in the islands, in 1834, was 32, and of private 206 : the expenditure of Government 6171*l*. The male scholars in public schools, 1789 ; of females, 117. Ditto in private schools, males, 4583 ; females, 826. Total in all, 7315. For details see large edition of this work.

THE PRESS.—Nothing deserving this title exists in the islands ; there is a Government newspaper at Corfu, one half of which is printed in Italian, and the other in the Romaic Greek ; it has, of course, no freedom of discussion. The efforts making to introduce a newspaper press into Greece will probably be felt in the septinsular union, and it is to be hoped that by such means a stimulus may be given to the Ionians for the developement of intellect, which they are not deficient in, but which now lies dormant.

Libraries.—A collection of books, originally founded at Messina, in 1810, by British officers, and transferred to Corfu by them, has, since that period, gradually increased into a very respectable library of several thousand volumes, containing many valuable and well-selected books, to which a very ready access is at all times afforded. All military and naval officers, officers of the civil departments, British residents, and respectable inhabitants, may become mem-

bers at a moderate entrance, and a small annual, or monthly subscription.

Besides this library, the medical officers of the garrison have a collection of English periodical publications, and standard works.

A small library was founded by the Canon Carale, from voluntary subscriptions among the nobility, &c. The books were lodged in the Franciscan Convent of St. Giustina : to this the Ionian Academy added theirs ; but on the arrival of the French, the most valuable of the books were abstracted by them. Some few remain at the convent.

A Bible Society was instituted in the summer of 1819, for the purpose of distributing the translations of the Scriptures into the Greek language, without note or comment, and there can be no doubt that much good will be derived from it by the islanders, for whose benefit it is intended.

STAPLE PRODUCTS.—*Agriculture* is yet extremely rude, and the instruments of tillage as primitive probably as in the time of Ulysses. The olive, which is the principal product, flowers in April, and the fruit is ripe in October : it is not plucked when ripe, but is allowed to fall on the bare ground, a process which often lasts till April. The trees are neither regularly pruned nor trenched, and they are thickly planted. It is said that the produce of the olive-trees, thus thickly planted, brings more money to the proprietor than if they were thinned, and the ground they occupy otherwise cultivated.

The vine is generally planted in the plains and valleys, and corn on the declivities of the hills—a system

the reverse of what we should consider proper. A vast extent of the island is in a state of nature, and absolutely pestiferous, for want of a proper system of draining and tillage.

Few proprietors cultivate their own lands, but let them out on short leases, the tenants binding themselves to return a fifth or even a third of the produce.

Manufactures.—The manufacture of oil is the principal, and the machines employed in it are of the rudest construction possible.

The olives are pressed under a perpendicular stone wheel, which revolves in a large-sized horizontal stone of a circular form, somewhat hollowed in the centre. A horse or mule sets the machinery in motion, and a peasant runs before and shovels the olives under the approaching wheel, the action of which is necessarily confined to a limited space, while its power is very insignificant. The bruised mass is then transferred to a bag made of rushes or mat, which is subjected to a heavy pressure; this pressure is increased by means of a screw, wrought by two men at irregular intervals; for the labour is so violent, that they cannot possibly continue long at it. They ship two strong bars, after the manner of a capstan, and then, with a most savage yell, they urge them forward by a simultaneous dart, the effect of which is marked by a quantity of oil oozing through the mat, and falling into a hole cut in the ground for its reception. After the interval of forty or fifty seconds, the labourers dart forward again with similar violence, and with a bodily effort which must strain their whole frame. The quantity of oil that two expert labourers can express

in a day is estimated at ten or twelve jars of rather more than four gallons each¹.

The wine is reported to be naturally good, but spoiled in the manufacture.

Salt is manufactured extensively by evaporation under the rays of the sun. Soap and leather are prepared, but of a coarse kind, and not to any great extent. There is a pottery of coarse earthenware at the village of Castrades. Besides these, silk, lace, snuff-makers, confectioners, dyers, tanners, bell-founders, basket and mat-makers, &c. are scattered through the town.

The following returns will convey an idea of the extent of cultivation in the islands for several years in the aggregate; to which I subjoin a view of the produce, stock, and prices of each island:—

¹ Sir Edward Baynes informed me, in September, 1835, that he was then sending out to Corfu a steam-engine with hydraulic presses, for the squeezing of the olives, and with four pair of stones attached for the grinding of corn.

Nature of Crop, and Number of Acres in each Crop, in all the Ionian Islands, since 1828.

Years.	Wheat.	Indian Corn, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of Uncultivated Land.
1828	11162	24782	1475	13006	104523	49066	678	995	2723	7770	207810	492753
1829	10976	25128	2323	13821	99660	45782	940	803	3307	10306	202740	499340
1830	10462	24829	2708	13104	111576	49608	1434	927	2921	11516	217569	484511
1831	3362	32526	9938	12874	109728	46968	1689	5050	3765	18378	235882	466198
1832	14382	38702	9935	12867	116828	44451	996	2023	3983	30254	244167	457913
1833	14002	36932	4659	12870	116722	46402	981	1623	3955	23676	238146	463934
1834	13605	33415	4475	12880	116657	46386	1035	1609	5962	31941	234024	444793

Description and Quantity of Produce and Stock in the Ionian Islands, since 1828.

Years.	PRODUCE.										LIVE STOCK.				
	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Barley.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Salt.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
1828	bush. 43056	bush. 182151	bush. 11589	bush. 15135570	barrel. 190366	barrel. 240028	barrel. 21894	lbs. 93671	bush. 14225	bush. 1247	19074	12602	106699	81683	
1829	44134	167944	20605	17470800	24013	267338	35695	60209	15719	48338	17695	10918	93728	74803	
1830	45380	198228	22260	18003138	135547	289426	26310	91820	16031	197450	16079	10790	103160	60708	
1831	45138	192507	87591	20496567	...	286799	32094	132950	24028	...	16356	10906	100741	73447	
1832	59969	161843	92385	22776530	179727	319462	34172	115659	21028	...	16607	12132	117040	82358	
1833	56702	195160	32357	18832899	69682	270154	36424	107591	30149	...	14673	10469	95449	75941	
1834	234727	177065	23944	15071400	253923	306822	45145	94522	19826	114193	15275	9660	92002	87627	

To the foregoing official returns to the Colonial Office; it will be advisable to add a table, shewing the cultivation, produce, stock, and prices of each island; the following is for the year ending January, 1835:—

Returns of the State of Agriculture, in the Ionian Islands, for the Year ending January, 1835.

Islands.*	Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.												Number of Stock.			
	Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Olive Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crops.	Number of Acres of Land uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
Cor....	4005	13508	2963	...	75700	13900	69	843	1020	17422	112008	33272	4104	2541	18085	16707
Cep....	682	6963	635	6242	4323	12232	473	351	1033	640	32934	189786	3753	1416	26493	14274
Zan ...	7182	966	492	6440	16766	13600	327	134	64	1474	45971	53869	3152	944	14025	16101
S. M.†	1234	3249	380	8	8143	4127	111	75	212	5494	17539	97661	2223	1786	11513	28118
It.....	49	263	5	190	212	756	1	97	38	1626	1611	3286	643	89	4653	8206
Cg.....	453	8466	...	...	513	1365	54	109	1595	5285	12555	41685	840	3082	16275	4160
P.	...	...	...	...	11000	406	...	...	...	...	11406	5234	270	2	958	21
Total	13605	33415	4475	12880	116657	46386	1035	1609	3962	31941	234024	444793	15275	9660	92002	87627

Islands.*	Nature and Quantity of Produce.										Prices of Produce.									
	Wheat.	Maize, Barley, &c.	Oats.	Currants.	Oil.	Wine.	Cotton.	Flax.	Pulse.	Wheat, per Bushel.	Maize, &c. per Bushel.	Oats, per Bushel.	Currants, per 1000 lbs.	Oil, per Barrel.	Wine, per Barrel.	Cotton, per lb.	Flax, per lb.	Pulse per Bushel.		
Cor....	Bush. 189205	Bush. 47526	Bush. 4583	Lbs ...	Brls. 236016	Brls. 88964	Lbs. 2002	Lbs. 21089	Bush. 5598	s. d. 3 9 2 0 1 8	s. d. 2 0 1 8	s. d. 2 0 1 8	s. d. ...	s. d. 43 4 8 4	s. d. 8 4 8 4	s. d. 8 4 8 4	s. d. 3 6 3 6	s. d. 3 6 3 6		
Cep....	5797	47661	4751	9457400	420	45730	25788	16282	7091	4 6 2 2 1 11	4 6 2 2 1 11	4 6 2 2 1 11	206 7 60 8 12 6	6 6 3 9	6 6 3 9	6 6 3 9	6 6 3 9	6 6 3 9		
Zan....	23795	1155	630	7030000	1682	63730	6220	3645	757	4 0 2 6 2 2	4 0 2 6 2 2	4 0 2 6 2 2	216 8 45 10 10 0	10 7 1 4 2	10 7 1 4 2	10 7 1 4 2	10 7 1 4 2	10 7 1 4 2		
S. M.†	12001	31594	3694	4000	...	62292	6515	23418	2761	3 11 2 0 2 0	3 11 2 0 2 0	3 11 2 0 2 0	195 0 ...	5 0 1 0 4 5 6	5 0 1 0 4 5 6	5 0 1 0 4 5 6	5 0 1 0 4 5 6	5 0 1 0 4 5 6		
It.....	989	6979	286	310000	...	9045	100	27088	874	3 11 1 2 6 1 8	3 11 1 2 6 1 8	3 11 1 2 6 1 8	209 5 ...	8 2 10 4 1 5 1 1 2	8 2 10 4 1 5 1 1 2	8 2 10 4 1 5 1 1 2	8 2 10 4 1 5 1 1 2	8 2 10 4 1 5 1 1 2		
Cg.....	2240	42150	...	...	57	36200	4520	3000	2745	5 0 4 2 ...	5 0 4 2 ...	5 0 4 2 ...	...	48 0 3 4 6 1 5 4 0 1 4	48 0 3 4 6 1 5 4 0 1 4	48 0 3 4 6 1 5 4 0 1 4	48 0 3 4 6 1 5 4 0 1 4	48 0 3 4 6 1 5 4 0 1 4		
P.	...	...	...	...	15748	861	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	47 8 13 0 ...	...	...	...	...		
Total	234727	177065	23944	15071400	253923	306822	45145	94522	19826											

* Owing to want of space, the full length names of the islands have been omitted.

† Santa Maura produced also 114,193 bushels of salt.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—*Weights*, as established by Act of Parliament, dated 24th May, 1828.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—Accounts are kept in sterling money.

The only coinage of the states is a copper currency to the amount of 10,000*l.* sterling, in farthings. The general circulating medium is Spanish dollars.

There is no paper money in the islands, and it is desirable that a bank should be established at Corfu, there being none in existence. The bank projected should be on the Vienna principle, namely, lending money on the security of a cargo, or on goods, houses, lands, &c.

COMMERCE.—The trade of the Ionian islands is considerable, and increasing so far as the disturbed state of the adjoining countries can be supposed to admit of. The following shews the shipping employed since 1827 ¹.

¹ The Ionian government has a steam boat which departs once a month from Ancona for Corfu. An Austrian Steam Company has been formed at Trieste for the navigation of the Adriatic—and the French chambers have voted a million sterling for the purpose of establishing a complete steam navigation throughout the Mediterranean. See Appendix.

Years.	INWARDS—FROM			OUTWARDS—TO		
	Great Britain.	Foreign States.	Total.	Great Britain.	Foreign States.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1827	35365	336957	372322	34286	331188	365474
1828	28038	311714	339752	26934	308882	335816
1829	25531	250447	275978	23244	264112	287356
1830	24673	201567	226240	22537	208707	231244
1831	22101	172776	194877	23081	176794	199875
1832	21004	219712	240716	21889	222659	244548
1833	25941	228968	254909	24449	231383	255832
1834	29275	269769	299044	29028	267358	296386

A more detailed view of the shipping inwards and outwards for 1832 and 1834 is thus shewn.

Shipping Inwards.

Years.	Ionian.	British.	Austrian.	Russian.	French.	Neapolitan.	Papal.	Sardinian.	Turkish.	Greek.	All Others.	Total.
1832	125873	21004	39094	10875	1353	6164	2129	5058	2780	24212	2174	240716
1834	146734	29275	50283	5069	4873	15817	1278	8035	4597	31380	1703	299044

Shipping Outwards.

Years.	Ionian.	British.	Austrian.	Russian.	French.	Neapolitan.	Papal.	Sardinian.	Turkish.	Greek.	All Others.	Total.
1832	128511	21889	38640	12833	1359	5969	2568	5039	1853	24610	1277	244548
1834	148856	29028	49265	4841	4962	14584	1360	7908	4492	29592	1498	296386

There are no consecutive returns of the commerce of the Union; the imports into the Ionian Isles for the year 1834 were in value 609,977*l.*, the exports 565,651*l.* Of this, there were in produce, olive oil, barrels, 197,771, value 349,029*l.*; currants, lbs. 19,568,177, value 182,238*l.*; wine, barrels, 15,650, value 4865*l.*; spirits, barrels, 1180, value 1380*l.*; valonia, lbs. 180,195, value 200*l.*; salt, barrels, 80,942, value 1012*l.*; all other produce, 2118*l.* Oil, wine, and currants pay on exportation a duty of eighteen per cent, *ad val.*; soap do., eight per cent. The import duties are light.

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT—REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY—LAWS, &c.—
STATE OF CRIME—MILITARY DEFENCE—REVENUE, AND
EXPORTS, &c.

GOVERNMENT. The civil government is now composed of a legislative assembly; of a senate; and of a judicial authority. The *Legislative Assembly* consists of forty members, including the president: of the forty, eleven are integral members, and twenty-nine elected from the various islands in the following proportion: Corfu, seven; Cephalonia, seven; Zante, seven; Santa Maura, four; Ithaca, one; Cerigo, one; Paxo, one. Each of the three last in the rotation in which they stand (exclusive of that island whose regent becomes an integral member of the legislative

assembly) elects a second. The members are elected (on a double list formed by a majority of the votes of the primary council), out of the body of the syndita of each island. [Chap. iii. Art. 8. Constitutional Charter.]

The elections, and all civil appointments, are valid for five years; and the session of the parliament of the states is held every two years.

The votes are *viva voce*, and the sittings open; ten members, and the president, or vice president, constitute a legal meeting; and conferences with the senate, &c. are managed by the eleven integral members of the assembly, who form, with their president, the primary council. These eleven integral members in the case of parliament dying a natural death (that is, having run its full course of five years), consist of the president and five members of the old senate; the four regents of the great island during the late parliament; and of one of the regents of the smaller islands; but in case of a dissolution, instead of the regents, the lord high commissioner names five members of the late legislative assembly.

The *Senate*, which forms the executive power, is composed of six, viz. five, and a president, entitled "His Highness;" while the senators are styled the "Most Illustrious" (*Prestantissima*); the senators are elected out of the body of the legislative assembly in the following proportion, viz. Corfu, one; Cephalonia, one; Zante, one; Santa Maura, one; Ithaca, Cerigo and Paxo, one. The power of placing a member of the assembly in nomination for a senator rests with the president, on an application being

made to him in writing, signed by four members of that body and himself, demanding such nomination; and the president shall place in nomination any person when eight members make a demand; the election takes place three days at furthest after the meeting of the assembly, and is decided by the majority of votes, the president casting in case of an equality. The sanction of the lord high commissioner is necessary to the validity of the election. The vacancies thus caused by the election of five members of the assembly to the senatorship are filled up by the transmission of double lists of names from the primary council to the syndita of each island. The senate remain in office five years; his highness, the president, half that period, eligible however to be re-appointed by the lord high commissioner. The senate names its own ministerial officers, with several exceptions, and it has the power of nominating to all situations under the *general* government; the regents to the different local governments; the judges in all the islands; and generally to all situations, except merely municipal ones, with certain renovations. During the recess of parliament the senate has the power of making regulations which have pro tempore the force of laws; it has the power of originating laws, as well as disallowing any passed by the legislative assembly.

The lord high commissioner is appointed by the colonial office, and is generally a military officer¹;

¹ One of the evils attendant on the appointment of a military lord high commissioner is, that he appoints generally military men as residents at each island, who are removed with every change of troops, &c.

His Excellency appoints in each island a resident, or representative, of the lord high commissioner, who is a field officer of the regiments on duty in the islands. The regent, advocate, fiscal, secretary, and archivist of each island, are appointed by the senate, subject to the approbation of the lord high commissioner. The municipal administration of each island consists of five members, independent of the president (who is the regent), appointed by the syndita of each island; out of the body of the said syndita, from "lists" of names sent in to the regent by the syndita, but scrutinized and regulated by the regent and his assessors. Ten members are chosen by the syndita from these "lists;" and from these ten five are selected by the regent to form the municipal body. (See Ch. iv. Art. 9, Constitutional Charter.)

The qualifications of the syndita, or "noble electors," I have not been able to ascertain with any accuracy; I understand that some votes are hereditary, but that pursuing any trade or business is a disqualification.

To form a legal meeting one half of the syndita of each island must be present. For the other details of this unique form of government, I refer to the Charter.

For the respective powers of the assembly and senate, I refer to the Constitutional Charter in my "History of the British Colonies," which those who are curious in examining the different forms of government will be interested in perusing; it owes, I believe, its origin to the late Sir Thomas Maitland, and is a singular specimen of constitution making. Without giving here any opinion as to its merits, I

may express a regret that it is rather verbose, and devoid of proper arrangement.

THE JUDICIAL AUTHORITY in each island consists of three tribunals,—a civil, a criminal, and a commercial; and there is a court of appeal in each island: the judges being appointed by the senate, subject to the approval of the lord high commissioner. Independent of these courts, there are in each island tribunals for the trial of minor criminal offences, and for the adjudication of small civil suits; these are presided over by justices of the peace for the island, appointed by the regent of the same.

At the seat of government there is, in addition to the foregoing courts, a superior or high court of appeal denominated “the Supreme Council of Justice,” and consisting of four ordinary members (judges)—two English and two Greek, and two extraordinary members, viz. the lord high commissioner, and his highness the president of the senate. For the power of the courts, see the Constitutional Charter. Trial by jury does not exist¹; nor are there any assessors to aid the judges. No crimes but those of murder and high treason are punishable with death,—which infliction is now rarely suffered.

Lawyers are exceedingly abundant, and it has been calculated that every tenth individual is connected with the legal profession, who, no doubt, have sometimes reaped rich harvests when suits have been protracted through several successive generations.

¹ Lord Nugent contemplated an improved mode of trial by a jury, who should, with the judges, hold assizes in each island as on a circuit.

The laws were partly Venetian, partly Greek ;—a code has now been digested for the islands, and is much needed, particularly as regards the law of entail, now abolished, and that singular enactment by which a purchaser was compelled to restore a property to a seller several years after the bargain, for the same price at which it was vended, if the vender tender the original sum ; a measure that of course struck a blow at all improvement.

State of the Gaols in the Ionian Isles, year ending Jan. 1835.

Prisoners.		Debtors.		Misdemeanours.		Felons.		Tried Prisoners.		Untried Prisoners.		Prisoners Employed.		Prisoners not Employed.	Punishments for Offences within the Prison.	Cases of Sickness and Death.		
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Hard Labour.	Not Hard Labour.			Cases of sickness in the Year.	Greatest No. of Sick at one time.	Deaths.
407	16	24	..	132	10	251	6	332	11	75	5	62	78	283	178	1055	56	6

The gaols seem to be well managed ; wherever the localities will admit, the debtors are separated from the felons ; the cost for each prisoner is about 5*d.* per diem ; the average of hard labour is nine hours per diem, regulated according to the season. In Cephalonia those who work at the hand corn mills receive *half* of their earnings, the gaoler one quarter, and the remainder is paid into the police chest. The prisoners are supplied with coarse clothing.

THE MILITARY FORCE of the British army in the islands is about 3300 men.

The distribution of troops in 1834 was, Corfu, 1524; Vido, 522; Paxo, 23; Santa Maura, 125; Cephalonia, 367; Zante, 304; Ithaca and Calomos, 50; Cerigo, 67; total, 2982.

There are six barracks for the garrison at Corfu, viz. one in the citadel, one at Fort Raymond, one at Fort Neuf, and another for a small detachment at Vido Island. The barrack in the citadel is a very good stone building of four stories, including the basement story, situated at the foot of the rock on which the citadel is built, and open to the north.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The official returns that I have obtained on this point are conflicting. The following return from 1821 to 1831 is from a colonial office manuscript; the remaining three years are derived from the Blue Book at the Colonial Office.

Ionian Islands' Gross Revenue and Expenditure
in sterling Money.

Years.	Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	125884	87178	18202	105380
1822	134666	92587	17629	110216
1823	129565	100304	19844	120114
1824	156353	92217	33588	125805
1827	124945	143631	20983	164614
1828	168248	128120	31427	159547
1829	139405	115311	32502	147813
1830	146922	117468	29287	146755
1831	131052	108386	28290	136676
1832	165519	715550	25428	140978
1833	144073	129145	27077	156222
1834	190791	128695	27821	156517

The revenue may be said to be entirely raised from custom duties on imports and exports; each island, after its local expenses are defrayed, remits the surplus to the general treasury at Corfu, and the disbursement is solely under the control of the local legislature; a considerable proportion has hitherto been appropriated to the repair of the fortifications, and towards the military expenses, in virtue of the treaty of Paris, which provides for the "military protection of the islands according to their revenues."

Many details are fully given in my large work on the Colonies.

CHAPTER V.

CEPHALONIA.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—ANTIQUITIES—PHYSICAL ASPECT—
GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE AND DISEASES—VEGETABLE
AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS—POPULATION—STAPLE PRODUCTS
COMMERCE, &c. &c.

CEPHALONIA, although second in rank to Corfu, is the largest of the islands composing the septinsular union. It is situate in the parallel of $38^{\circ} 27'$ north latitude, and the meridian of $20^{\circ} 32'$ east of Greenwich, having Santa Maura about six miles to the northward, Zante eight miles to the southward, and the west coast of the Morea twenty-four miles distant. The area is 348 square miles, the extreme length thirty-two, extreme breadth eighteen, and the circumference following the coast 150 miles.

Cephalonia, like Corfu, has had many names ; some assert its original name to have been *Teleboa*, but Strabo denies it, and states it to have been Cheffali (from, I presume, κεφαλη, a head), owing to the island being first in size, and greater in political importance than the other islands in the Ionian Sea. Homer, in describing the various armies of the Greeks assembled at the siege of Troy, represents Ulysses as commanding the *Cephalonites*, giving the title of *Samos* to the island, which was also known by the name of Tetrapolis, from having four towns, viz. Palis, Same, Cranii, and Pronesos, being the names of the four sons of Cephalus. Pliny calls the island *Melæna* as well as *Same*, and Virgil denominates it *Dulichium*. The early history of the island, as may be expected, is involved in fable or allegory ; such, however, as it is, I subjoin, according to the statements of Messrs. Sauveur, Kendrick, Goodison, &c. in order to promote inquiry.

The Curetes, who occupied the island of Crete, spread themselves into Ætolia, and then made themselves masters of Acarnania. They afterwards passed into Ionia, and conquered the country of the Leleges, who were likewise denominated in history Teleboans. The Cretans soon added to theirs the islands in the Ionian Sea, and planted a colony in that of Cephalonia, to which they gave the name of Teleboa. Strabo, however, in his account asserts that the Teleboans fled from their conquerors, and sought an asylum in this island, after being chased by Achilles from the continent, placing this epoch prior to the siege of Troy. Cephalonia was therefore called Tele-

boa, and her fierce warriors, under the conduct of Ulysses, partook with the Myrmidons the honour of revenging Menelaus.

Cephalus, an Athenian prince, being obliged to fly his country for the murder of Procris, his wife, took refuge in Bœotia, with Creon, king of Thebes. At this time, the Teleboans had excited the wrath of the Thebans, by assassinating the brothers of Alcmena, the wife of Amphitryon, their general. The army, strengthened by the assistance of the Locrians and Phoceans, who lent their powerful succour for the occasion, prepared to punish the audacity of the islanders. Cephalus offered his services, and was admitted to share the dangers of the expedition. The Teleboans were defeated in battle, and, after losing their king, submitted to the yoke of the conqueror. Amphitryon returned triumphant to Thebes, where he found Alcmena pregnant by Jupiter. She gave birth to Hercules. Cephalus remained in the isle of Teleboa, over which he reigned in peaceable possession. He changed its name and gave it his own, and from thence it was called Cephalonia. His successors and descendants reigned for six generations, when they abandoned the kingdom, and retired into Attica, determined in this resolution by the oracle of Delphi, which they had consulted; thus having renounced the throne of Cephalonia, the inhabitants resolved to adopt the republican form of government. The four principal cities had already assumed this measure, independent of each other, but were obliged now to unite for the common cause. History says that the island was formed into one re-

public from the first, of which Palis was the capital, and the supreme authority divided between the senate and the people.

The power of the islanders, their progress in navigation, and the advantages of their ports, rendered them, even long before the siege of Troy, valuable allies or formidable enemies to the various neighbouring people. The Argonauts, under Jason, their leader, touched at the island of Cephalonia. It was at the port of Cranii, at the extreme end of the harbour, that he anchored. On landing he found a people who were inured to the hardships of a seafaring life, and who were fully instructed in maritime affairs. Cranii was frequented continually by vessels from Argos, whence arose the name of Argostoli, from the Greek, signifying the "fleet of Argos." But other historians, seeking further back, say it derived the name from the vessel of the Argonauts, which was called Argo.

In the most remote times the Cephalonites took part in all the various revolutions of Greece, and their courage and bravery would at once decide a victory in favour of the people whose cause they embraced. Before the Trojan war, Thucydides speaks of the share which the Cephalonites took in the war occasioned by the inhabitants of Epidamnus, between the Corinthians and Corcyreans, and bestows considerable praise on the courage they showed in battle. It appears that Palis furnished on this occasion four ships, to befriend the Corinthians who were allies. It is rather singular that Thucydides, in speaking of this succour, should only mention the people of Palis ;

his silence on the other inhabitants conveys the idea that the isle was divided at that time into many different republics. The number of men who embarked on this occasion amounted to 120, of whom 50 were employed to manage the ship, and the rest were either spearmen or archers. The Cephalonites afterwards abandoned the cause of the Corinthians, on the Athenians declaring war against the latter; for which reason the Corinthians sent forty vessels to punish their treachery.

This fleet arrived in the port Cranii, and the troops disembarked; but being a strongly fortified place, it resisted every attempt made against it, and, in the end, the inhabitants one night contrived to surprise the Corinthians, defeating them with great slaughter. They continued faithful to the Athenians, supplying them with ships and men, whenever required, throughout all the wars the latter sustained.

The ruins and ancient monuments of all kinds which have been found in the isle leave no doubt of the riches and progress of the people in the fine arts.

At about three miles distance from Argostoli to the south-east, the walls of the ancient city of Cranii can easily be traced, occupying the top of a very rough and inaccessible ridge, which projects upon the east angle of the lake or gulf at its southern extremity. A very considerable portion of the butt of the walls still remains, sufficient to trace their circumference throughout. Some of these consist of enormous masses of stone, hewn and laid together much after the same fashion with those at Santa Maura and Ithaca.

All the different descriptions of cyclopic building are found here, the rougher and more massy specimens occupying the higher parts. The wall which faces the south may be traced for about 1508 paces, and another looking north-east extends for about 800. In the latter are very large blocks of stone; at one part they are regularly squared, where they probably formed the casement of a door. Where both walls join, there is a part constructed of masses also nearly square, a very large stone resting on two others, which it has nearly forced from under it; it is of the following dimensions:—length, eight feet ten inches; depth, five feet two inches; height, six feet seven inches. A second, nearly quadrangular, is eight feet in width, three feet ten inches high, and four inches and a half in thickness. A third enormous block is thirteen feet five inches in length, three feet three inches in height, and about the same in its greatest depth, which is, however, irregular. Besides these powerful artificial defences, the situation of the place was at once difficult and dangerous for the assault of an enemy, particularly the ascent to the south wall, which runs along the edge of a precipice its whole length¹.

Cranii is mentioned in history as the capital of one of the four kingdoms, or districts, into which the island was divided. Philip of Macedon, and the Roman Consul Flaminius, were repulsed from Cranii; and according to Livy (book 38, c. 29), the Samians held out against the Romans, under Marcus Fulvius, for four months.

¹ Kendrick.

Cephalonia possessed its liberty long after the downfall of Athens, Corinth, Sparta, and the other celebrated republics of Greece; but though it repulsed Titus Quintius Flaminius, the Roman Consul, and long held out against the legions sent to reduce it, Fulvius finally stormed Same, then containing 1800 houses, and put the people to the sword. From thence Cephalonia continued as a province of the Roman empire until A.D. 364, when it passed under the yoke of the emperors of the east, who continued masters thereof until 982, when the Lombards, a people of Pannonia, under the command of John Leone, conquered and took possession of the island.

In 1125 A.D., Cephalonia again became subject to the emperors of the east, when they began to recover from the harassing irruptions of the Ottomans, under Mahomet. The island is stated to have been given to Baudoin, for his services against the Saracens, when they besieged Constantinople. On the death of Baudoin, it was ruled by Galus, Prince of Tarento, who had also other islands in the Ionian Sea given him by the eastern emperor, in return for the money he had lent to carry on the Saracenic war. Cephalonia, on the downfall of the eastern empire, followed the fate of Corfu, and became a dependency of the Venetian republic, who retained possession until Napoleon occupied Venice; since which period the island, as stated in a previous chapter, has successively passed under the government or protection of the Russians, French, and English.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Cephalonia is extremely rugged and mountainous. The general direction of the

mountains is from south to north. At the southern extremity of the range, or opposite the coast of Zante, is the highest mountain in the Ionian islands, the mountain *Ænos* of antiquity, the modern Black Mountain, or *Montagna Negra*, 3625 feet above the level of the sea. Mr. Muir, who has attentively examined the island, says, that "the general aspect of the mountains is arid and barren, some of them being without a trace of vegetation, and presenting, from the bottom to the top, nothing but a rugged variety of brown and gray rock, with perhaps here and there a solitary olive tree growing from a fissure betwixt them. What little soil they may have formerly been covered with, has either been washed down by the rains, or if found in the interstices and fissures, been carried down to cover the crusts of rock appearing through the scanty soil in the valleys below. On many of the mountains are found large blocks of various dimensions of a hard calcareous stone, sometimes isolated, and sometimes in groups, and often upon the tops of the highest hills in great abundance. They are in general more rounded than angular, by attrition from water, which must have been seawater, from the number of marine fossil shells found deposited in the rocks at various elevations all over the island. It is to be remarked also, that these blocks appeared much more compact than the rock of the mountain itself, which is also calcareous, and in all probability they are the debris of former mountains, perhaps of the continent of Greece itself, lodged there by currents before the island appeared above the level of the sea; for that the whole of the island

has been under water, indeed that it is a deposit from the sea itself, admits, in Mr. Muir's opinion, of very little doubt.

The top of *Montagna Negra* is usually covered with snow about the beginning or middle of December, which seldom disappears from its summit before the beginning of May. The inhabitants say that diseases were not so frequent before the destruction of the wood on the Black Mountain, which was formerly covered nearly to its summit on the north side with forest trees, principally fir and cypress. About twenty-seven years ago the forest was completely destroyed by being set fire to by some evil-disposed persons of one of the factions. Ever since then, say the inhabitants, the whole island, but especially the neighbouring valleys, have been subject to greater atmospheric vicissitudes in consequence of winds and storms, &c. having room to collect and rush down on the plains below with unimpeded velocity and fury. At present, the north side of this mountain presents a very extraordinary sight; the whole sloping side, for miles, is thickly studded with the bleached trunks of trees entirely denuded of their bark, and without a leaf, many of them from thirty to forty feet high, presenting themselves, by their various forkings and withered branches, under the most grotesque and even hideous forms; a feature which is often observable along the mountain ridges of New Holland, after a dry summer, when forest conflagrations are general.

The harbour of *Cephalonia* runs inland for eight miles, rather difficult of ingress and egress, owing to

its serpentine form, but offering a spacious and convenient shipping port. The entrance to the haven is extremely picturesque: on either side groves and plantations, relieved in the back-ground by majestic mountains, meet the eye in varied succession. To the left, on the western side of the harbour, three miles from its entrance, stands the town of Lixuri (olim Palis). In front of this town the harbour opens into a branch running to the south-east for three miles; and on the peninsula formed by this branch, and close to the sea, is Argostoli, the capital of the island, built upon a slip of level ground upon the western shore of the harbour, at the foot of a narrow promontory or tongue of land above mentioned, and which is about three miles and a half long, not exceeding two miles in length at its broadest part, and gradually becoming narrower till it terminates in that point which forms the north-west extremity of the harbour. The town lies about the centre of this ridge; it consists of two main streets, which run north and south, and a number of cross streets and lanes. The principal street, or that next the water, is about one mile and a quarter long, and twenty feet wide; the other not nearly so long. The town is open and unwall'd, rapidly increasing in size, and about three miles in circumference. The streets are all very narrow, but tolerably well paved, and with several common sewers. The houses are generally two stories high, fronting the north-east. They are built of stone, cemented with lime and terra rosa, and covered with tiles. The general average size of the rooms is about fourteen feet superficial square, and

they are very low. The ceilings are unplastered, the floors are almost universally of wood, the windows glazed, but in a loose manner, and without putty.

The soil on which the majority of houses are built is gravelly, but some are built on "made ground" recovered from the sea; these houses are principally to be met with about the wharfs and moles at the southern end of the town, which is decidedly more unhealthy than the northern. The hills which rise behind the town are thickly planted with the currant and the vine to the distance of about 120 or 130 feet up their sides, and interspersed with olive trees, but above that level they are bleak and precipitous¹.

The town of Lixuri is not a station for the troops; it is nearly of the same general characters as Argostoli; but cleanliness is much less attended to. It is situated on the shore of that branch of the harbour which runs northward, on an argillaceous schistous soil. The number of inhabitants of Argostoli, exclusive of the troops, was, a few years ago, somewhat more than 3500; that of Lixuri somewhat more than 4800.

Catacombs have been found by the Venetians, French, and British to the south-west of Argostoli, and the remains of ancient warriors completely clad in their war dresses discovered, the bones crumbling into dust on the slightest pressure. The Venetians opened eight catacombs in 1647, and sent the antiquities contained in them to Venice; the further discoveries made in 1810 produced little to interest the antiquarian.

¹ Hennen.

At between five and six miles distance from Argostoli lies the citadel or castle of St. George, situate on the summit of a hill of considerable height, which constitutes the southern termination of a range that extends along and forms the eastern side of the harbour of Argostoli. The wall of this castle encloses about three acres of land.

Cephalonia, although at present divided into cantons, viz. Erizzo, Tinea, Samos, Anoi, Pilaro, Kaloi, Livadi, Potamiana, Ikongia, Skala, and Pirie, was formerly divided into four regions, each named after an ancient city (viz. Samos, Palæa, Pronos, and Cranii), and hence called Tetrapolis. These four regions are still distinguishable in the natural configuration of the island, owing to the double aspect of the mountainous formation; one of the faces inclining east and the other west. The variety of mountain scenery presents many sweet and romantic views to the Cephalonian tourist, among which the valley and bay of Samos is of unsurpassed beauty.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—Cephalonia consists of limestone of secondary formation; the ranges which project from the body of the island were originally a sand deposit, and are incrustated at top with limestone. The strata of sandstone begin to appear one-third from the top, and abound in shells and marine fossils, and so rapid is the formation of carbonate of lime, that quarries where sandstone was hewn not many years since are now in many places coated with limestone. Crystals of sulphate of lime of a yellowish tint, and very brittle, are occasionally found; and stalactical

of a greenish white, and remarkable for their hardness, are abundantly obtained in caves near the coast. A mineral spring of a sulphurous impregnation issues from a rock close to the sea, and is used externally and internally by the natives as a remedy for *psora*. The soil is generally of a light calcareous nature, thinly sprinkled on the rocky surface; but in some of the deeper valleys and ravines there are beds of rich alluvial soil, mixed with a fine red mould termed "*terra rosa*," which the natives occasionally employ as a cement for covering the roofs and floors of houses, or, mixed with a little lime, as a substitute for mortar. In the Lixuri district there is a heavy gray argillaceous soil, approaching somewhat to the nature of schistus, and much used in making tiles, bricks, and coarse earthenware.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The observations under Corfu refer generally to the other islands: the thermometer maximum 95° , minimum 44° , Fahrenheit. Sharp frost in January; heavy rains in February and March, succeeded by dry weather; May, middle, heavy rain; June, sultry, with showers; July, August, and September, clear, with occasional rain; October, fine; and much rain from November 12th to December 20th; remainder fine, with snow on the mountains, which continues visible until April or May. As a whole, the climate may be said to be more variable than any other island of the Septinsular Union, owing, probably, to its elevation.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—M. Sauveur speaks of several remarkable plants in Cephalonia—one dyes the

teeth of goats of a bright golden yellow, and imparts a rich flavour to their milk; and a second turns gold to a whitish colour, as if touched with mercury.

For population see Corfu.

The Cephalonites are more active, enterprising, and intelligent than the Corfiots; a number are educated as physicians, and when their studies are completed they migrate to the Morea, Albania, and various parts of Turkey, there being scarcely a town on the continent without a Cephalonite doctor.

STAPLE PRODUCTS of the island are currants, oil, wine, honey, linseed, cotton, lamb and hare skins, oats, and fruits of different kinds; the annual quantity of currants produced varies from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 lbs. weight, and are of a finer flavour than those of Patras or Corinth, or indeed of any of the other islands, except Zante.

The wine is next in point of reputation, and owing to the variety of soil, there are no less than eighteen different sorts of wine: of the red that of Livadi enjoys the preference; and of white that of Ribola and Cosanikio. There are three sorts of muscadel of excellent flavour. Of raisins, about 150,000 lbs. weight are annually prepared.

For returns of the state of agriculture in Cephalonia, see Corfu.

There are several small manufactories, viz. one of blue cotton cloths, and two or three for the preparation of meraschino, or rosolio, to which an exquisite flavour is given by the aromatic herbs and flowers of the island; the red, called "alkermes," has a deli-

cious fragrance. Ship building is now carried on, and the deep water close to the shore at Lixuri is favourable for docks.

GOVERNMENT.—Cephalonia is ruled by a Resident or Deputy of the Lord High Commissioner, but it possesses, like all the other islands, its own municipal government, which levies and expends the Corporation dues. The Custom-house receipts are disbursed by the Resident, so far as is required for the island expenses, and the residue is transmitted to the general treasury at Corfu.

CHAPTER VI.

ZANTE.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY AND SOIL
—CLIMATE AND DISEASES—VEGETABLE KINGDOM—POPULATION—STAPLE PRODUCTS, COMMERCE, &c. &c.

ZANTE, Zacynthos, or Zacynthus, supposed to be so called from its being the burial-place of one of the Bœotian followers of Hercules, (Pliny states it was formerly called Hyria,) is situated in the parallel of $37^{\circ} 47'$ north, and the meridian of $20^{\circ} 54'$ east of Greenwich, ten miles distant from Cephalonia, and lying opposite the Gulf of Lepanto or Patras, towards

the west angle of the Peloponnesian province of Elis, the nearest point of which, Cape Klarenza, is distant about fifteen miles.

The area is 156 square miles; in its greatest length, which lies north-west and south-east, it measures twenty-four miles; in breadth twelve; and its circumference, the same which was estimated by Strabo, viz. seventy miles.

The history of the island does not present any remarkable materials. The island was formerly dedicated to Diana Opis; to whose honour three or four temples were erected by the Zacynthians. Zante has been supposed to be the burial-place of Cicero, from an urn being found in an ancient sepulchre, and upon a stone covering the tomb was engraved "M. TVL. CICERO HAVE TU TERTIA ANTONIO," and under the urn containing the ashes, "AVE MAR. TUL¹."

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—From its exquisite beauty, this island is by common consent called "*Zante, il fiore di Levante*." In shape it is trapezoidal, or rather irregularly oval, indented with a deep bay at its south-east extremity. The aspect is decidedly mountainous, and occupying three-fifths of the island, the elevation varying from 500 to 1300 feet above the sea.

An extensive ridge of mountains occupies the whole of the western side of the island, and runs along its entire length from north-west to south-east. Occasional rising grounds skirt the shore. The most

¹ Sandys.

striking, as well as the loftiest of these detached eminences (1300 feet high), is the Monte Scopo, the "Mons elatus nobilis" of Pliny, which rises out of the plain at the south-east end of the island. It is washed by the sea on its southern and eastern faces, and gradually is lost on the land side. Towards the northern extremity of the plain, and the town of Zante, a range of lofty cliffs extend for some distance, at the foot of which is a remarkable well, called Crio Nero, which supplies the city and shipping with water. On a detached offset of these cliffs, which were formerly known under the appellation of Acroteria, the castle is situated, at 350 feet elevation, and is of considerable antiquity. It crowns the top and one side of the hill, which consists of clay and calcareous stone. This hill rises immediately behind the town to a height of between 300 and 400 feet. Several deep gullies indent its sides, and, to the southward, a very large mass is divided from the main body by a deep and impassable fissure, said to have been occasioned by an earthquake. The town stretches up the side of the hill to within about 100 paces of the entrance of the fortress. The fortress is an enclosure of nearly a triangular shape, containing within its area twelve or fourteen acres. The entrance presents somewhat the appearance of modern military architecture, but the remainder is simply a strong old wall, occasionally loop-holed, turreted, or battlemented, without any regularity of plan; consequently, without any military strength. The approach winds along the face of the hill, and the ascent from the town is easy.

The city of Zante is very imposing in its external appearance, viewed from the sea. It is an open unwalled town, and stretches along a gently curved bay for about a mile and three quarters. At about half a mile from the northern extremity is the point of Crio Nero, jutting into the sea, from whence the town and shipping are supplied with water.

In breadth the town nowhere exceeds 300 yards, except where the houses stretch up the hill, upon which the castle is erected. In 1819, the city contained 3730 private houses, sixty-five churches, five private chapels, two convents of monks, and two of nuns, and twenty-seven public edifices of various descriptions, including two Jewish synagogues. Some of the houses are four or five stories high, built of stone, and strongly clamped together with iron. These edifices are on the Venetian plan of architecture, with triangular lattices to the windows, and many of them are very splendid in their external appearance. The principal streets run parallel to the bay, and are intersected in various directions by lesser lanes and alleys. The Via Larga, or great street, would not disgrace any city in Europe. The houses are very handsome, and are furnished with piazzas in front, which afford a shady walk. Under these are the principal shops, which are extremely well stocked with the various products of England, the Continent, and the Levant. The streets are paved and furnished with sewers, which, however, are not so well covered over as might be wished. There are no regular market-places, consequently the streets are obstructed by the sellers of various articles of provisions, &c.

In the country there are forty-eight villages and many scattered houses. The external appearance of the houses is very picturesque. Several of them are two stories high, and the peasantry pride themselves much in ornamenting them. As in all the other islands, there are no fire-places in the houses, and the majority of them are without proper drains. Upon the whole, however, it may be fairly stated that the inhabitants, whether in the town or the country, are to all appearances much more comfortably lodged than in any other island of the Septinsular union¹.

The water of the island is peculiar. There are, in the town of Zante, forty-four cisterns, 1288 public and private wells, and three springs and fountains, which are all so highly saturated with sulphate of lime, or sulphate of soda, as to be unfit for culinary purposes; besides which, from the porous nature of the soil, proper cisterns cannot be constructed to retain the rain-water, and owing to this cause, as well as to the proximity of the town to the sea, and its very small elevation above it, the water in the cisterns becomes brackish. Luckily for the inhabitants, there is a never-failing and copious supply of water obtainable from the fountain of Crio Nero, which is no more than about half a mile from the northern end of the city.

Mount Scopo, to the northward of the town, at a few miles distance, abounds in excellent springs.

In many parts of the island, according to St. Sau-

¹ This is the testimony of Dr. Hennen, a close and accurate observer.

veur, springs of an oily taste and smell are found; some of them on the shore, though covered with sea-water, still retain their sweetness to a certain extent, when drawn up, and the sea-water removed from the surface. All these springs have been greatly neglected, and many of them have been destroyed by the earthquakes.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The western mountains, as also Mount Scopo, are formed of calcareous rock, with an occasional mixture of gypsum, principally of the grey foliated kind, with a proportion of selinite. The castle hill is composed of a loose friable calcareous matter, or mixed with clay and sand. There is some tolerably hard marble in the island; and around the villages of Agrassi and Sarachira, there are immense masses of selinite and foliated gypsum.

The soil is of three different kinds :—a strong clay in the plain, calcareous on the rising ground, and sandy near the shore.

Zante possesses petroleum and tar-springs, somewhat similar to those which I have described under Trinidad.

There are many instances of longevity among the Zantiotes, and several inhabitants are known to be above ninety years of age, in the full possession of all their faculties.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Zante abounds in aromatic herbs, the odour of which is experienced some distance at sea; and the delicious flavour of the Zantiote honey is doubtless owing to the fragrance of the herbage. Currants, oil, wine, and flax are the prin-

cipal vegetable products. Horticulture is much attended to, and indeed it may be observed, that science and skill is more devoted in Zante to rural operations than in any of the other islands.

The state of agriculture in Zante is better than in the other islands ; many of the farmers are educated and enlightened proprietors, who give their attention especially to agriculture : in Zante alone is manure much used. In the cultivation of the currant and vine Zante is superior to Cephalonia and Ithaca, although there the plantations are carefully tended.

CHAPTER VII.

SANTA MAURA.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — GEOLOGY AND
SOIL—CLIMATE AND DISEASES—VEGETABLE KINGDOM—PO-
PULATION—STAPLE PRODUCTS—COMMERCE, &c.

SANTA MAURA Island (olim Neritos, then Leucadia, from λευκος, white, owing to its white rocks) formed by the artificial construction of a channel dividing it from the mainland of Acarnania, with Cephalonia ten miles to the southward, and Corfu thirty-five to the north-west, is situate in $38^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and

20° 46' east of Greenwich, having an area of 180 square miles ; in extreme length twenty-three, in extreme breadth ten, and about sixty miles in circumference.

The island of Santa Maura was anciently known under the appellation of Neritos and Leucadia. According to Eustathius, there were three sons of Pterelaus ; Ithacus, who gave name to a country, Neritus to the Acarnanian promontory, and Polyctor to a place called Polyctorum. The island, on its separation from the mainland, was at first solely inhabited by Acarnanians ; but, at a latter period, became a dependence of the Corinthians. Homer, in his *Odyssey*, mentions that the Leucadians furnished their contingence of men and vessels in the famous siege of Troy : these were commanded by Ulysses, who had under him the Ithacans, the Cephalonians, and the men of Zante and Crocylea. Æneas, on his return, touched at this island :

“ At length Leucate’s cloudy top appears,
And the sun’s temple, which the sailor fears :
Resolved to breathe awhile from labour past,
Our crooked anchors from the prow we cast.”

ÆNEAS, Lib. iii.

By this it evidently appears that the temple of Apollo Leucas was feared by the sailors of those times ; and the superstitious custom in the present day of throwing money in the sea underneath it, originated from the sacrifices formerly offered to propitiate the favour of the fabled deity. Oxen were sa-

crificed on the altar of this temple, which custom the Romans strictly followed whilst in possession of the island. The Leucadians entered into the famous league of the Greeks against Philip of Macedon.

Dion, in his expedition against Dionysius, the tyrant of Syracuse, was assisted by Timonides, at the head of a considerable force of Leucadians. After the fall of the various small republics of Greece, this island passed under the Roman domination. Lucius G. Flaminius conquered it. In the reign of Pompey, the famous temple of Apollo was pillaged and reduced to ruins by pirates. Santa Maura remained under the eastern empire until the latter's fall, and was then governed in succession by several princes whose names are lost: it was afterwards conquered by Logan, the Turkish admiral, by the command of Mahomet the Second. Pesaro, the Venetian general, took it from the Turks, in 1502, but the senate at Corfu surrendered it up to that power on the conclusion of peace. In 1684, Morosini attacked the island, and conquered it, after an obstinate resistance from the Ottomans. When the Morea was overrun by the latter, in 1715, the Venetians fled from the island, taking with them all the artillery and stores, and razing the fortifications. On the following year they repossessed themselves of the island, retaining it until the French destroyed their shadow of a republic.

In the year 1810, the English, under the command of General Oswald, besieged the fortress, in which the bravery of our troops, and skill of their leader, were

displayed most highly. Our loss on this occasion was necessarily great; Major Clarke, of the thirty-fifth regiment, fell whilst storming the battery in front of the isthmus, on the bridge side. His remains were interred in one of the bastions of the fort, and a marble tomb records his intrepidity¹.

PHYSICAL ASPECT².—Santa Maura is a mass of mountains, of which St. Elias, the highest, rises to an elevation of 3000 feet above the level of the sea. The figure of the island is somewhat triangular; the north-west coast, which forms the base line, runs straight and perpendicular, raising the land to a considerable height above the level of the sea; from this the surface inclines irregularly towards the eastern coast, giving the whole nearly an eastern aspect. A part, however, considerable in population and productiveness, although of small extent, owing to its narrowness, enjoys a fine western aspect. This is formed by the ridge-line of the north-west face being, as it were, levelled off, and giving a strip of land of about twenty miles in length a gentle slope towards the north-west. Along this tract are many populous villages, and much cultivated ground. It is, from its great height, and free exposure to the northerly and westerly winds, the healthiest part of the island during the summer months. The north-west coast is, as above said, nearly throughout perpendi-

¹ Kendrick.

² I am indebted for this description to Surgeon Goodison, who resided for several years at Santa Maura, and whose talents in general matters, as also in his profession, are well known.

cular, containing no single harbour or road, and opposing a mass of pure limestone to the great swell which is rolled in by the northerly and westerly winds towards the bottom of the Gulf of Prevesa. It would appear, that the constant action of this great body of water has reduced the island at this side to its present form; and that the detritus, or loosened matter, swept along the coast by the southerly and westerly winds, and carried round the north-eastern point of the island, has been deposited in a long line, which is the present isthmus. This will account for the otherwise irreconcilable variance of the descriptions of ancient writers with the present appearance of this part of the island, and will further explain the cause of the changes which have taken place within the memory even of the present inhabitants.

The south-east end is narrow for about ten miles, which gives the whole island a disproportionate length. The hills at the extremity towards Cape Ducato are disposed in a very singular manner; they consist of a regular series of cones laid together in a right line, and diminishing gradually in size to the cape; they are cut upon the north-west faces by a plane, which is parallel with their axis, and continuous with the north-west coast of the island. The faces shown by these sections are of a beautiful whiteness; one of them constitutes Sappho's Leap. Their convex surfaces are turned to the southward in beautiful swells, which are covered with evergreen shrubs down to the water's edge. Their figure is so nearly

mathematical, that the south-east coast is here indented with regular spherical angles. From the sea this singular formation is not so evident, but it is very striking when viewed from the tops of the cones upon returning from Sappho's Leap. The change in the point of sight readily accounts for this; as, in the former instance, the curves and angles are viewed, the eye being in the same plane with them; whereas, in the latter case, the spectator is placed almost perpendicularly above them.

The next remarkable feature in the topography of the island is the new isthmus. From the north-east angle of the island a narrow strip of land of about four miles in length, and of a very irregular waving line, extends across the mouth of the channel towards the coast of Acarnania, which it reaches within 100 yards; it then runs parallel with that coast for about half a mile, eking out the channel an equal length. From near its extreme point, at a small angle, it sends off a ledge of rocks towards the north, which is of very singular appearance and composition.

When seen at even a short distance, it bears a perfect resemblance to a mole running out into the sea, and it is by many believed to have been a work of the Romans. The ledge is about half a mile in length, and from twenty to thirty feet wide, with deep water at each side. Its breadth and direction are nearly uniform throughout, which gives it so much the appearance of a work of art. The rock of which it is composed consists of gravel and sand, accumulated there by the water, and formed, according to the

size of the particles so brought together, into sandstone or pudding-stone. The substance which unites them is become as hard as the particles themselves ; for upon breaking the mass with a hammer, the fracture goes through them equally with the interstitial matter. The whole forms an exceedingly hard stone, capable of taking a certain degree of polish. It is used for building, as also for making stones for flour mills and oil presses. The isthmus seems to have been formed on this rock as a basis. The latter is found along its whole line under the loose gravel, at the sea-water edge, and appears to be rapidly advancing.

Amaxichi, the chief town, about a mile in circumference, is situate on a very beautiful plain two miles long, one broad, and thickly covered with olives, and contains upwards of 6000 inhabitants, the remaining being scattered among thirty-two villages, some of them situate on the very tops of the mountains. At the south-west extremity of the island is the bold promontory of Cape Ducato, the celebrated leap of Sappho for the cure of her unfortunate love ; it is little more than 100 feet high, and beneath is the deep blue sea. There are no rivers, but the island is well supplied with springs and natural fountains.

Santa Maura, like the other Greek islands, was at one time a place of considerable importance. The ancient town of Leucadia is situated about three miles from the present city, near the coast. The ruins furnish ample proof of the once powerful state of the island. Several inscriptions were discovered by the

Venetians, who removed them to Venice, where the greater part are still to be seen. The style in building this city is sufficient testimony that it could not have been erected at any remote period ; it is evident, in placing the huge blocks on one another, that the art of cementing them was lost, since the several attempts to dislodge them have invariably succeeded, which in other cases is next to an impossibility.

The ancient city was built by the people of Nerikos, a colony of Corinthians who had settled on the opposite coast, but who, probably for the sake of security, removed thither.

The fortress is a strong and irregular six-sided figure, its largest diameter running north and south, flanked by towers and outworks. It stands on the isthmus which once connected the island with the adjacent continent, there termed Acarnania, and has the open sea on the north and north-west ; on the south and south-east is a lagoon, and by means of wet ditches on the other points it is completely insulated.

The fortress was built in the thirteenth century, by a Venetian prince of the house of Facchi, who likewise built the aqueduct that runs from the castle isthmus to the town : the latter is the greatest, and indeed the only curiosity in the island. This causeway, which is upwards of half a mile in length, serves as a bridge, it having 365 arches ; in height it is nearly three feet above the surface of the water ; its breadth is so extremely narrow, that two persons cannot securely walk abreast. The peasants, in their

superstitious fancies, believe it to have been the work of Satan. The aqueduct was repaired by Bajazet, the Ottoman Emperor, but is now in total disuse, owing to the pipes having been destroyed by an earthquake, and some of the larger stones of the construction having been removed for building purposes.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—The island consists of a mass of mountains, the primary ridge running nearly north and south, in the direction of the Cassiopæan range, which is a secondary to the great chain of Pindus, upon the continent; the basis is secondary limestone. This ridge terminates in a bold promontory at the southern end of the island, called Capo Ducato, near which is a singularly romantic precipice, long celebrated as being the scene of the fate of the unfortunate Sappho. The cliffs here are of a splendid whiteness, from which the ancient name Leucadia is said to have been derived. Secondary ridges traverse the island in a direction generally towards the southward and eastward: they are composed of crystallized, compact, fibrous, and earthy carbonate of lime and of gypsum, the lime always predominating. The soil is poor, and in a few places alluvial; but its very poverty and thinness seem to render it the better adapted for the growth of the vine, olive, and currant.

CHAPTER VIII.

ITHACA, PAXO, CERIGO, &c.

AND GENERAL VIEW OF THE VALUE OF THE ISLANDS.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE—
POPULATION—PRODUCTIONS, &c.

ITHACA.

ITHACA (called *Thiaki* by the natives, *Val de Compare* by the Venetians), in latitude $38^{\circ} 25'$ north, longitude $20^{\circ} 40'$ east, is bounded on the south and east by Cephalonia, from which it is distant about eight miles; on the east and north-east by the channel of Zante, and a group of small islands, the ancient Echinades; on the north by a part of Santa Maura; and on the north-west, west and south-west by the channel which runs between Santa Maura and Cephalonia. It is distant from the main land of Acarnania about fifteen miles at the nearest point, and somewhat more than thirty miles distant, in a south-east direction, lies the opening of the gulph of Lepanto. The shape is irregular, the extreme length from north to south being eighteen miles, extreme breadth, five, but in some places not more than one mile and a half; its circumference about thirty, and its area forty-four square miles.

Whether this little island were the celebrated Ithaca of Homer, is not yet a settled point; its very name was forgotten until of late. But the modern inhabitants call their home *Thiaki*; and Sir William Gell has, I think, proved it to be the actual birth-place and patrimonial kingdom of Ulysses.

The appearance of Ithaca is unprepossessing, the whole island being a mass of mountains running in an irregular ridge east and west; or it may be considered a single mountain divided into rugged and mis-shapen rocks: as Homer says—

“ Horrid with cliffs, our meagre land allows
Thin herbage for the mountain goat to browse.”—B. iv.

Again—

“ The rugged soil allows no level space
For flying chariot or the rapid race.”—B. xiii.

Mount Stephanos and Mount Neritos are the two highest points, the former rising immediately to the south, and Neritos to the eastward, above the chief town called Vathi, situate in one of the inlets of a bay four miles deep, and one of the most secure harbours in the Mediterranean.

Vathi is little more than a single street, upwards of a mile long, containing from 3 to 4000 inhabitants; the houses built of stone, and the town remarkable for its cleanliness and health. The alleged site of the ancient capital of Ulysses is to the south-east of the present town; immense masses of hewn stone indicate the spot, as does also the situation of several gateways; and occasionally a suburb flanking the walls is distinctly observable. Near this place

several sepulchres have been discovered and opened ; and numerous coins, bracelets, bronze figures, chains, and other articles of exquisite workmanship obtained. An entire body was found in one of these catacombs, having the head encircled by a gold coronet, the arms and legs embraced with solid bands of gold ; and an emerald ring of great value was taken off one of the fingers of the great unknown¹.

The cave wherein Ulysses was placed while sleeping, by the Phæacians, as mentioned by Homer, is situate at a small distance below the entrance of the harbour. On the isthmus near Aito, or the eagle mountain, are some ruins, or cyclopean walls, said to be the relics of the castle of Ulysses ; and Korax, and the famed fountain of Arethusa, is shewn in the recess of a declivity four miles from Vathi, and nearly covered with shrubs. Korax is a very beautiful white limestone cliff, eighty feet in perpendicular height, fronting the sea upon the south east coast, and somewhat resembling a bird with its wings extended.

The antiquarian and classic who wishes to know more of this romantic spot, will find his curiosity gratified in the elegant and profound researches of Sir William Gell, and in the interesting descriptions of Assistant-surgeon Goodison.

GEOLOGY.—Like the other Ionian Isles, Ithaca is a mass of secondary limestone ; the rock exists mostly in loose insulated masses on the surface, in some placed in gigantic heaps—in others formed into con-

¹ Kendrick, page 78.

fused water-courses, owing to the rapid descent of the mountain torrents. The soil, as may be expected, is exceedingly stony; and the declivities, where the vine and currant are cultivated, so great as to require terracing the earth, so as to resemble the benches of a theatre; and, in contrast with the surrounding bleakness, adding a beautiful picture to the landscape. The fruit produced is excellent, and the wine much superior in flavour to that of any of the other islands.

The orange, lemon and citron flourish, as does also the oak, which produces the velonia, or acorn, used by woollen dyers to retain the colour of their cloth.

The Ithacans are hardy sailors, and in proportion to the size of their isles, have a good deal of shipping. Several islands, or islets and rocks, lie in the channel between Ithaca and the continent forming part of the territories of the former, the chief of which is Kalamos, near the main land. The Tela-boans were chiefly situate between Leucadia, or Santa Maura, and the Grecian coast.

Ithaca sends one member to the senate at Corfu, and has its municipality for the management of local affairs.

PAXO.

Paxo, another of the Ionian islands, in latitude $39^{\circ} 12'$ south, longitude $20^{\circ} 12'$ east, with an area of twenty-seven square miles, and twelve in circumference, is of an oval shape, and composed of a single

mountain, which probably, at one period, formed part of Corfu, from the southernmost point of which it is only seven miles distant. Port Gai affords good anchorage for a few vessels; but there is an inner harbour formed by an island almost in contact with the other, having a circular battery commanding the town, which is scattered in an irregular manner on the beach.

Paxo was first inhabited by Corcyreans (Homer, though well acquainted with all the islands, makes no mention of it) from Corfu; and, by an ancient tradition, St. Paul is said to have landed and preached the gospel, and banished all reptiles from the island. To the southward of Paxo is Anti-Paxo, chiefly inhabited by fishermen, and, while the Venetians held sway, a notorious retreat for pirates, who levied severe contributions on all who fell within their power.

The products, &c. for 1835 are given at page 355, in the table of the state of agriculture in the Ionian islands for that year.

CERIGO AND CERIGOTTO.

Cerigo is the most southern island of the Septinsular Union, situate in latitude $36^{\circ} 6'$ north, longitude $22^{\circ} 50'$ east, at the entrance of the Archipelago; to the north of Canee, and south of the Morea; five miles distant south from Servi, and fourteen east-south-east of Cape Malio. The area is 116 square miles, the extreme length twenty, the extreme breadth twelve, and the circumference about fifty. The is-

land was anciently known (according to Pliny) by the name of Porphyris, from its possessing abundance of that beautiful marble. Ptolemy attributes the name of Cythera to Cytherus the son of Phoenix, who established himself in the island. According to some, Cerigo was first peopled by the Lacedemonians, who in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war were expelled by the Athenians under the command of Nicias. At a subsequent period it passed under the dominion of the Spartan republic, and served as a retreat to Cleomenes, who on the approach of Antigonus, king of Macedon, took refuge in the island. Ptolemy, king of Egypt, was afterwards lord of Cerigo; the Romans next came in possession, then the Venetians, and it followed the fate of the other islands of the Union. The relics extant denote the former greatness of the place; "Pælo Castro" ruin, to the northward of the harbour, stands on the ancient town of Menelaus, whose faithless wife Helen caused the siege of Troy, and whose bath is still shewn. Six miles from the harbour of St. Nicholas, on the east, was situate the former city of Cythera; and a little further to the south are situate some ruins, supposed to belong to a temple dedicated to Venus Cytheræa.

The island is oval-shaped; at the north is Cape Sparti, having a chapel on its extremity: to the south is Cape Kapello, close to which is situate the harbour, and immediately above the chief town called Kapsali, and containing about 5000 inhabitants, whose tenements offer a marked contrast to the other islanders', being mostly of wood, and ill constructed;

indeed, the Cerigottians are far less advanced in civilization than the other Ionians. The harbour is small; and as vessels are sometimes windbound for several months off Cerigo, I understand that Sir Howard Douglas has consulted Mr. Rennie as to the formation of a safety port for vessels at a place which the celebrated Sinan Cigale, the Turkish admiral, not inaptly termed the lantern of the Archipelago.

The island is scantily covered with soil, and subject to violent winds which destroy the vineyards and plantations—so that it is very partially cultivated. The oil is of excellent quality, and brings a good price; the inhabitants, however, are obliged to resort chiefly to fishing for their support.

Four miles to the south of the harbour is an insulated rock, called "*l'Ova*" *Egg*, of the form of a sugar loaf, on which is found a shell-fish, partaking strongly of conchilia, which produces a beautiful red colour, which it is supposed yielded the famous Tyrian dye. Two miles east of Cape Kapello, are two rocks called "*Kuphonisis*," or baskets, and to the east of Cerigo is situated the small island of Cerigotto, formerly known under the appellation of *Ægilia*, and now chiefly inhabited by Greeks and Turks, but subject to Corfu, as are also several other minor isles, such as *Strophades*, *Maganissa*, *Panorno*, &c. *Strophades*, about twenty miles south-east from *Zante*, is about five miles in circumference, and on its east coast is situate the celebrated convent of the Redeemer, built of white freestone, resembling marble, ninety feet high, divided into four parts, each protected by a tower. The access is only by means of a

door leading to the vaults, which is closed up immediately on an alarm being given, when the monks are drawn up by means of baskets, after the manner of the Copt monasteries in Egypt. The establishment consists of about sixty brothers, with a grand and sub-prior, &c. who are supported by a revenue derived from landed possessions in Greece and Russia. There are several noblemen and well educated gentlemen among the brothers of the order, who have a good library and every comfort that a seclusion from the world will admit of. This magnificent convent was erected by Prince Tocchis, but owed its celebrity to San Dionisius, who, after residing in Strophades several years, accepted the bishoprick of Egina, but finally died at Zante in 1624. Several Zantiots reside on the islands.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

The importance of the septinsular islands to England has reference principally to their geographical position, by which they are admirably adapted for protecting our trade in the eastern parts of Europe, and extending our commerce as soon as Greece becomes more settled and civilized; while the rapid promotion of steam navigation over the Mediterranean, tends considerably to enhance their importance in a maritime-military consideration.

It would be well if trial by jury were introduced into the islands, and a free press promoted; and I would suggest that the wines *bonà fide* prepared in

the Ionian Isles be admitted into England on the same footing as those of the Cape of Good Hope, or any other colony. There can be no doubt that we have effected some good in elevating the character of the Ionians; by a perseverance in our present judicious system we shall be laying a permanent foundation for the extension of the British name and commerce throughout Eastern Europe. Russia was extremely anxious to have been the protector of the Septinsular Union—let this be a warning to us as to their political value, and an inducement to conciliate the good opinion and affection of the Ionians by a wise and generous policy¹.

¹ See my "Colonial Policy," part 1, on Government, published by Messrs. W. H. Allen & Co. London, 1837.

APPENDIX.

THE following table relative to the efficient system of steam navigation which the French Government have adopted for the Mediterranean, and for the due execution of which the Chamber of Deputies has voted 1,000,000*l.* sterling, will be found useful to all travellers in the Mediterranean. An Austrian steam-packet company has been formed at Trieste for the Adriatic, &c., but it is not yet in operation. Our own Government at the Ionian Isles have a steam-packet which arrives at Ancona from Corfu on the eighteenth of every month, and leaves Ancona for Corfu early in the morning on the twenty-first of each month. Passage six guineas.

POST-OFFICE REGULATIONS FOR THE FRENCH MEDITERRANEAN STEAMERS.

SERVICE OF THE STEAM PACKET-BOATS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

Table showing the organization of the service, tarif of the tax on letters conveyed, and the tarif on the fares for passengers.

Places of departure and destination.	Postage of a single letter.*	Distance in marine leagues.	Time of making voyage, not including stoppages.	Time nearly of stopping at the destined places.	Tarif of the prices of passage in the packet-boats.		
					1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
From Alexandria	Fr.	L. m.	Dy. h.	Dy. h.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
to Athens	1	173	3 2	— 14	156	104	52
— Civita Vecchia ...	2	481	8 14	— 6	433	289	144
— Constantinople ...	1	283	5 5	1 15	255	170	85
— Leghorn	2	549	9 16	— 7	467	311	156
— Malta	2	322	5 18	— —	290	193	97
— Marseilles	2	598	10 16	— —	538	359	179
— Naples	2	431	7 17	— 6	388	259	129
— Smyrna	1	200	3 13	1 —	180	120	60
— Syra	1	450	2 16	— 12	135	90	45

The packet-boat from Syra arrives at Alexandria on the 4th, 14th, and 24th of each month, at 10 p. m. Leaves Alexandria on the 6th, 16th, and 26th of each month, at 4 p. m.

From Athens								
to Alexandria	1	173	3 2	1 18	156	104	52	
— Civita Vecchia ...	1	354	6 8	— 6	319	212	106	
— Constantinople ...	1	156	2 23	1 15	140	94	47	
— Leghorn	1	392	7 —	— 7	353	235	118	
— Malta	1	195	3 12	— —	176	117	59	
— Marseilles	2	471	8 10	— —	424	283	141	
— Naples	1	304	5 11	— 6	274	182	91	
— Smyrna	1	73	1 7	1 —	66	44	22	
— Syra	1	23	— 10	— 12	21	14	7	

The packet from Syra arrives at Athens on the 10th, 20th, and 30th of each month, at 6 a. m. Leaves Athens on the 10th, 20th, and 30th of each month, at 8 p. m.

* Note—The tax on letters which appears in column 3 of the above Table, with regard to each place of destination and also the place of departure, is established according to the distance in a straight line, existing between the original place and that of its destination, and according to the law of 3 July, 1835, which fixes at 1 franc the tax of all places comprehended within a (rayon) circle of 250 marine leagues; and 2 francs the tax of places situated beyond and within 500 leagues.

Places of departure and destination.	Postage of a single letter.	Distance in marine leagues.	Time of making voyage, not includ- ing stoppages.	Time nearly of stop- ping at the destined places.	Tarif of the prices of passage in the packet-boats.		
					1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
From Civita Vecchia	Frs.	L. m.	Dy. h.	Dy. h.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
to Alexandria.....	2	481	8 14	1 18	433	289	144
— Athens.....	1	354	6 8	— 14	319	212	106
— Constantinople...	2	474	8 11	1 15	427	284	142
— Leghorn.....	1	38	— 16	— 7	34	22	11
— Malta	1	159	2 20	1 —	143	95	48
— Marseilles	1	117	2 2	— —	105	70	35
— Naples	1	50	— 21	— 6	45	30	15
— Smyrna.....	2	381	6 19	1 —	343	229	114
— Syra	1	331	5 22	— 12	298	199	99

The packet from France arrives at Civita Vecchia on the 4th, 14th, and 24th of each month, at 2 a. m. Leaves Civita Vecchia on the 4th, 14th, and 24th of each month, at 10 a. m.

The packet from Constantinople arrives at Civita Vecchia on the 2nd, 12th, and 22nd of each month, at noon. Leaves Civita Vecchia on the 2nd, 12th, and 22nd of each month, at 6 p. m.

From Constantinople							
to Alexandria.....	1	283	5 5	1 18	255	170	85
— Athens	1	156	2 23	— 14	140	94	47
— Civita Vecchia ...	2	474	8 11	— 6	427	284	142
— Leghorn.....	2	542	9 3	— 7	461	307	154
— Malta	2	315	5 15	— —	284	189	95
— Marseilles	2	591	10 13	— —	532	385	177
— Naples	1	424	7 14	— 6	382	254	127
— Smyrna	1	93	1 16	2 —	84	56	28
— Syra	1	133	2 13	— 12	120	80	40

The packet from France arrives at Constantinople on the 5th, 15th, and 25th of each month, at 9 a. m. Leaves Constantinople on the 6th, 16th, and 26th of each month, at midnight.

From Leghorn							
to Alexandria.....	2	519	9 16	1 18	467	311	156
— Athens.....	1	392	7 —	— 14	353	235	118
— Civita Vecchia ...	1	38	— 16	— 8	34	23	11
— Constantinople...	2	512	9 3	1 15	461	307	154
— Malta	1	197	3 12	1 —	177	118	59
— Marseilles	1	79	1 10	— —	71	47	24
— Naples	1	88	1 13	— 6	79	63	26
— Smyrna	2	419	7 11	1 —	377	251	126
— Syra	2	369	6 14	— 12	332	221	111

The packet from France arrives at Leghorn on the 3rd, 13th, and 23rd of each month, at 3 a. m. Leaves Leghorn on the 3rd, 13th, and 23rd of each month, at 10 a. m.

The packet from Constantinople arrives at Leghorn on the 3rd, 13th, and 23rd of each month, at 10 a. m. Leaves Leghorn on the 3rd, 13th, and 23rd of each month, at 5 p. m.

Places of departure and destination.	Postage of a single letter.	Distance in marine leagues.	Time of making voyage, not including stoppages.	Time nearly of stopping at the destined places.	Tarif of the prices of passage in the packet-boats.		
					1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
From Malta	Frs.	L. m.	Dy. h.	Dy. h.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
to Alexandria	2	322	5 18	1 18	290	193	97
— Athens	1	195	3 12	— 14	176	117	59
— Civita Vecchia ...	1	159	2 20	— 6	143	95	48
— Constantinople	2	315	5 18	1 15	284	189	95
— Leghorn	1	197	3 12	— 7	177	118	59
— Marseilles	1	276	4 22	— —	248	166	83
— Naples	1	109	1 23	— 6	98	65	33
— Smyrna	1	222	3 13	1 —	200	134	67
— Syra	1	172	3 2	— 12	155	103	52

The packet from France arrives at Malta on the 7th, 17th, and 27th of each month at noon. Leaves Malta on the 8th, 18th, and 28th of each month at noon.

The packet from Constantinople arrives at Malta 4th, 14th, 24th of each month at 10 p. m. Leaves Malta 9th, 19th, 29th of each month at 10 a. m.

From Marseilles									
to Alexandria	2	598	10	16	1	18	538	359	179
— Athens	2	471	8	10	—	14	424	283	141
— Civita Vecchia ...	1	117	2	2	—	8	105	71	35
— Constantinople...	2	591	10	13	1	15	532	355	177
— Leghorn	1	79	1	10	—	7	71	47	34
— Malta	1	276	4	22	1	—	248	166	134
— Naples	1	167	2	23	—	6	150	100	50
— Smyrna	2	498	8	21	1	—	448	299	149
— Syra	2	448	8	—	—	12	403	269	134

The packet-boat from Constantinople arrives at Marseilles on the 5th, 15th, and 25th of each month at 7 o'clock in the morning. Leaves Marseilles on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of each month at 5 o'clock in the evening.

From Naples									
to Alexandria	2	431	7	17	1	18	388	259	129
— Athens	1	304	5	11	—	14	274	182	91
— Civita Vecchia ...	1	50	—	21	—	6	45	30	15
— Constantinople...	1	424	7	14	1	15	382	254	127
— Leghorn	1	88	1	13	—	7	79	53	26
— Malta	1	109	1	23	—	—	98	65	33
— Marseilles	1	167	2	23	—	—	150	100	50
— Smyrna	1	331	5	22	1	—	298	199	99
— Syra	1	281	5	1	—	12	253	169	84

The packet-boat from France, arrives at Naples on the 5th, 15th, and 25th of each month at 7 in the morning. Leaves Naples on the 5th, 15th, and 25th of each month at 1 a. m.

Packet-boat from Constantinople, arrives at Naples on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of each month at 9 a. m. Leaves Naples on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of each month at 3 p. m.

Places of Departure and Destination.	Postage of a Single Letter	Distance in marine Leagues.	Time of making Voyage, not inclu- ding Stoppages.	Time nearly of stopping at the destined places.	Tarif of the prices of passage in the packet-boats.		
					1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
From Smyrna	Frs.	L. m.	Dy. h.	Dy. h.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.
to Alexandria	1	200	3 13	1 18	180	120	60
— Athens	1	73	1 7	— 14	66	44	22
— Civita Vecchia ...	2	381	6 19	— 6	343	229	114
— Constantinople...	1	93	1 16	1 15	84	56	28
— Leghorn	2	419	7 11	— 7	377	251	126
— Malta	1	222	3 13	— —	200	133	67
— Marseilles	2	498	8 21	— —	449	299	149
— Naples	1	331	5 22	— 6	298	199	99
— Syra	1	50	— 21	— 12	45	30	15

The packet from France, arrives at Smyrna on the 2d, 12th, and 22nd of each month at 5 p. m. Leaves Smyrna on 3rd, 13th, and 23rd of each month at 5 p. m.

Packet from Constantinople arrives at Smyrna 8th, 18th, and 28th of each month at 5 p.m. Leaves Smyrna 10th, 20th, & 30th of each month at 5 p.m.

From Syra										
to	Alexandria	1	150	2	16	1	18	135	90	45
—	Athens	1	23	—	10	—	14	21	14	7
—	Civita Vecchia ...	1	331	5	22	—	6	298	199	99
—	Constantinople...	1	133	2	13	1	15	120	80	40
—	Leghorn	2	369	6	14	—	7	332	221	111
—	Malta	1	172	3	2	—	—	155	103	52
—	Marseilles	2	448	8	—	—	—	403	269	134
—	Naples	1	281	5	1	—	6	253	169	84
—	Syra	1	50	—	21	1	—	45	30	15

The packet from France arrives at Syra on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 2 p. m. Leaves Syra on the 1st, 11th, 21st at 8 p. m.

Packet from Constantinople arrives at Syra on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 2 p. m. Leaves Syra on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 8 p. m.

Packet from Athens arrives at Syra on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 6 a. m. Leaves Syra on the 9th, 19th, and 29th, at 8 p. m.

Packet from Alexandria arrives at Syra on the 9th, 19th, and 29th, at 8 a. m. Leaves Syra on the 2nd, 12th, and 22nd, at 6 a. m.

THE END.

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